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FOUNDED IN 1865.

[*Entered at the New York City Post Office as second-class mail matter.*]

CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.

THE WEEK 401

EDITORIAL ARTICLES:

The Self-Elector 404
The Western Republican Conventions 404
Negro Churches 405
A Corporation and Its Soul 406
France and the Vatican 406

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE:

The Archæological Institute of America 407
Corsica and Its People 408
Marshal de Luxembourg.—II 409

CORRESPONDENCE:

The Seacoast of Bohemia 410

NOTES 410

BOOK REVIEWS:

Paul's History of Modern England 413
Edward Bowen 415
The Neighbor 416
Problems and Persons 417
Greek Votive Offerings 417
Rossetti 418

BOOKS OF THE WEEK 419

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 26, 1904.

The Week.

Amid the confident Republican prophecies of discord and folly at the St. Louis Convention, it may not be generally realized that one thing is already assured—the Democratic platform will this year be sound on the money question. Be the candidate who he may, he will not be for free silver. Nor will he be for any kind of meddling with the gold standard. So much is made certain by the action already had in State Conventions, and by the overwhelming drift in the party. Of the delegates now elected, at least two-thirds are against dragging the free-silver corpse from its grave; and, with the South returning rapidly to its historic position in favor of sound money, there can be no doubt that the St. Louis platform will be satisfactory on the currency issue, whatever its other planks may be. The efforts of Mr. Bryan to secure a reaffirmation of the Kansas City platform have come absolutely to nothing. Two or three Hearst-ridden States have gone in for that madness—having accepted him, why should they stick at anything?—but the great phalanx of Eastern and Southern States which have to elect the President, if any Democrat can be elected at all, have shown beyond a peradventure that they will have none of it. They may divide about candidates, but they are unanimous against breaking a leg twice over the same free-silver stone.

A significant announcement from Nebraska implies that Mr. Bryan himself is aware of the futility of further struggles against the inevitable. He is going to stump his own State as a candidate for the United States Senate. Nebraska Republicans have been so shamed and demoralized by the methods of Dietrich and his kind that the State is now regarded as fair fighting-ground. As so many times before, the Republicans have "redeemed" Nebraska from the Populists only to make its last state worse than the first. Bryan may succeed in carrying the Legislature. Obviously, however, as a candidate for the Senate on the regular ticket, he cannot be the enraged and irreconcilable bolter that complacent Republicans have pictured him.

For invincible optimism, commend us to the official Administration view of the party rent in Wisconsin. It is admitted, to be sure, that the Democrats will very likely win the Governorship, and that the Republicans will lose two or three Congressmen, but what of that? All factions are going to work hard for the electoral ticket, and that is enough for Washington. Defeated Congressmen can be "taken care of"; even if control of the House should be lost in consequence of the quarrel, it would not really signify. The Administration would still live. We have our doubts, however, whether this cheerfulness is not a little forced. It will certainly be thought so in Wisconsin. On the other hand, if, from the news which comes out of Illinois, Wisconsin, Indiana, and Massachusetts, the uninstructed reader should gain the impression that there is anything but harmony in the Republican party, it can instantly be disposed of by turning the pointer to Ohio and Iowa. Never did lion and lamb lie down together with more convincing manifestations of real brotherly love than do Senators Dick and Foraker. As for Secretary Shaw's State, it was evidently a mistake ever to suppose that the Iowa idea meant a friendly revision of the tariff. More than two-thirds of the national delegates protest that orthodox Republicans, at least, entertain no such idea. Last year's platform was so delicately balanced that the voter might fancy it inclining either way. This year's will be immovable in any direction. "Gov. Cummins of Iowa is the only man who can save you from the wrath to come," declared Congressman John Sharp Williams in one of his tariff speeches last winter. But the Republican leaders will have none of such means of salvation. One wrath at a time for them, and that of the protected manufacturer is more vivid than any tearful dread of future judgment.

Senator Daniel of Virginia says the American people are not going to stand the Republican policy of "dumping" much longer. Secretary Shaw, however, is of quite another mind. He told the Iowa State Convention last week that the chief issue of the campaign this year would be the Democratic claim that American goods are sold cheaper abroad than at home. But, he adds, while this is true in a way, the fact can be proved only as to about one-thirtieth of our exports. The astonishing thing is that it can be proved even to that extent, as the people who sell abroad at less than cost are not, as a rule, disposed to publish the fact. We trust Secretary Shaw has not based his present estimate entirely on the export price of commodities as figured by the Treasury Department. But, taking his figures at their face, they show that about $50,000,000 of American goods are annually sold abroad at less than the domestic prices—a fact which the Democrats may be able to use to advantage. According to the Iowa Republicans, protection must be maintained to its full extent in order to keep American industries from making war on each other. That is, certain manufacturers must be allowed to charge domestic consumers such inflated prices that they can afford to sell at a loss abroad. If they are not, there will be some throat-cutting among the friends of protection. No one has a right to say that a man shall not sell his goods abroad at any price he may care to name. But when the Government taxes 80,000,000 people to make good his losses, that is another thing.

President Roosevelt's letter, read at the Cuban banquet on Friday night, goes frankly upon the supposition that he is the big policeman of this hemisphere. All his professions of friendliness are qualified by the assertion, "Brutal wrongdoing, or an impotence which results in a general loosening of the ties of civilized society, may finally require intervention." Note, the wrongdoing is not directed against this country. It is not a case of impaired national rights that the President has in mind. His position is, rather, that if we do not like the kind of government maintained in neighboring republics, we will step in to compel a change or to take over the territory. Such a proceeding is as unknown to international law as were the doctrines which the President invented and applied to Panama. The right of intervention has been discussed and defined in hundreds of text-books, but not one of them recognizes this dangerous assumption of President Roosevelt's. How filled his mind is with it appears from the unconscious way in which he gives it expression. He probably does not intend to translate it into action until after election; but the inference is disquieting that, as soon as chosen President, he will set about a vigorous "policing" of San Domingo and the rest.

With so many able editors enthusiastic for Roosevelt, he yet seems strangely to lack outspoken defenders in the press. The eloquent silence of Republican newspapers about his pension order, for example, filled the American correspondent of the London *Times* with astonishment. Mr. Smalley could not understand that sort of thing. To have nothing to say when the leader of your party is attacked, is a new conception of journalistic loyalty. Another instance of the same thing is the entire failure of the leading Republican organs to speak a good word for the President in the Van Cott case. In the face of the reproaches of the Democratic and

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independent press, they are absolutely dumb. We admit that they had a hard case on their hands. The facts showed conclusively that the Postmaster of New York was grossly unfit to be kept in office; but why, nimbly evading the facts, could there not have been an indignant hurling back of "slanders," in the good old thick-and-thin style? The *Tribune* printed all the news, but could not find its editorial voice. It has, however, a good precedent for keeping its zeal for Roosevelt so carefully under restraint. Horace Greeley wrote that he "supported" Taylor in 1848, but added: "I did not hurry myself to secure his election."

Interesting side lights on the pension industry are furnished by the testimony taken in the Federal Court at Portland, Ore., in the case of Pension Agent T. A. Wood and his son, Hosea Wood, charged with conspiracy to defraud the Government. Nearly all the applicants appearing before Agent Wood were Indian fighters, and a careless crew they were. R. B. Wilmott, who appears to have led a company, testified "that he had not intended to sign the affidavit used by Mrs. Rosetta Garrison, but that her name had been written into a blank affidavit which he signed, expecting it to be used for some member of his company." It was his custom to sign blank affidavits, he added, and trust to the agent, Wood, to use them for the benefit of his old comrades in arms. Joseph Gibson was another trustful soul who was deceived. Counting upon the upright Wood, Gibson had signed seventy-five blank affidavits. In the case of Cornelius Beals it appears that "he had his doubts," as also when he vouched for Sarah A. Hill, an Indian war widow. "He called the attention of Wood to the fact that she had been married after the death of her husband, the Indian fighter." But Wood said "it was all right for him to make the affidavit, notwithstanding the subsequent marriage."

Another witness who helped to illustrate Wood's methods was Joseph Melrath, the notary public who was employed by the pension agent to affix his jurat to the affidavits as they were used. "There were shown him a bundle of claims, affidavits, and fee agreements which bore his jurat, and which other witnesses said they did not swear to on the date shown by his jurat." Mr. Melrath admitted that they were right, since on the date when the greater number of the affidavits were supposed to have been acknowledged, he had not even been in Portland. His excuse was: "Hosea asked me to let him do the dating, because he did not like my style of dating." It was Hiram Wood, "a gray-haired veteran," unable to sign his name, who seemed best to exemplify the friendly spirit of the Wood method. He had made his mark on a number of blank affidavits without intending them to be used to further the claims of Harvey A. Hogue, Jane Greer, and others, but hastened to add that "he knew the parties named and could have sworn to their claims." It was he also who "amused the spectators by hanging his feet over the jury-box and remarking to Judge Bellinger in the midst of the proceedings: 'You've got pretty old since I seen you last.'"

Several interesting commercial problems hinge on the arguments which began on May 18 before the Interstate Commerce Commission. Primarily, the question at issue is that of railway "differentials," by which is meant a concession, or handicap, allowed to a given railway, or to railways running to a given port. The theory of the "differential" was that if, for instance, all railways running from Buffalo to the seaboard had agreed on uniform rates for carrying export freight, a railway less favorably equipped than the others, or running to a port less advantageously situated, might properly be permitted to charge a lower rate. Such a concession was to do no more than counterbalance the disadvantages under which the "differential" railway labored. The present dispute chiefly concerns "differentials" in favor of railways serving Philadelphia, Baltimore, and outlets for the South. The claim of the New York lines is that these ports have outgrown the conditions which were originally met by the differential concessions. For evidence, statistics are submitted showing that, in the past twenty or thirty years, New York has lost much ground in the export trade, relatively to outside ports. Its shipments of wheat and corn in 1881, for instance, were 60 per cent. of the country's entire export, whereas in 1903 the ratio was only 44 per cent.

There is undoubtedly good ground for arguing that, under present conditions, the "differentials" allowed to many of these outlying ports have discriminated unjustly against New York. But it would be a great mistake to suppose that this is the whole cause of the decline in New York's percentage of our total export trade. In facilities for storage, for harbor transportation, and for dock room, all seaports are limited, and when the limit is approached, an overflow of the country's growing traffic to the younger ports is inevitable and altogether desirable. Construction of the great grain elevators in the Chesapeake, improvement of the freight service southward from the Middle West to New Orleans, and the building of new railways from the Nebraska-corn belt to the Gulf, drew to those export points a good deal of export business which, under old conditions, would theoretically have come to New York city. It was perfectly natural that, with the rapid growth of such facilities, these other ports should have increased by leaps and bounds the percentage of the country's export trade handled by them. It was equally natural that the ratio of this city's exports to the total should in some degree decline. But it should be equally plain that, with this advance in facilities of the younger ports, the argument for "differentials" disappears.

President Parry discussed the labor problem in his annual address on May 17 before the National Association of Manufacturers at Pittsburgh. This organization stands for sound ideas regarding the open shop and freedom from union tyrannies. President Parry says that all employers would prefer to see their men highly paid than to see them struggling for a mere livelihood, but he asserts that the blame for low wages cannot be thrown on the former. The only way to raise wages is to increase per-capita production. There cannot be any doubt on this point. Labor is essentially paid in kind. What people work for are the things they eat, drink, and wear. Anything that restricts the amount of such things decreases the amount consumed by those who produce them—that is, lowers their real wages. If the labor unions could once master this idea, they would see the folly of their course in trying to limit production. The cost of commodities must always be based on the unit of production. What the working man needs is the chance to work to his full capacity in turning out the units; but this is just what the labor unions aim to defeat.

The freight-handlers' strike on the Sound boats is a naked attempt to force recognition of the union. In his formal statement, Jacob W. Miller, general manager of the marine district of the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad Company, says that the only question at issue is whether he shall discharge an assistant foreman who has "served for many years faithfully," but who has not joined the union. Mr. Miller adds: "The public can decide whether or not a corporation should do such an unusually inhumane act, even though its own very large interests may be jeopardized by thus protecting the welfare of one true man." The demand that a foreman shall be thrown out of work because he does not choose to bow to the union and submit to the whims of a walking delegate, would be regarded as too preposterous for serious consideration were it not that unions are everywhere securing such admission of their absurd claims. As for the jeopardy to large interests of which Mr. Miller

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speaks, no doubt the company may suffer a temporary loss by maintaining its position; but we can imagine no course more unwise and disastrous in the long run than the sacrifice of a faithful employee to an irresponsible union.

North Carolina, Alabama, and Kansas have clashed in the Government Printing-Office. John Martin of Morgantown, N. C., is a "highly esteemed young man," and when he was assigned to a "case" beside a young Alabama negro he objected. The white compositor's protest was made to Division Foreman Roberts, "who hails from Kansas," and who informed Martin, when a second request for a transfer was received, that "the negro was as good as he." Mr. Ricketts, foreman of printing, upon being appealed to, replied that the President's attitude in this matter of recognizing the rights of negroes is so well known that he had no other course than to sustain Roberts. North Carolina interprets the situation as an insult to an esteemed citizen; Alabama is humiliated because the authorities are standing behind her "nigger" and giving all the other colored men in the printing-office an unnaturally haughty air; and Kansas, with characteristic modesty, is conscious of having struck a blow for industrial equality. The incident suggests the practical dread of business competition which lies behind much of the talk about "race purity."

So long as Mr. Balfour is alert enough to emasculate both free trade and protectionist resolutions in the Commons, he cannot be beaten on the fiscal issue; but it is hard to see how he can continue mere Parliamentary evasions and avoid the accusation of cowardice. That charge Lord Hugh Cecil made roundly against Mr. Chamberlain last week. Mr. Balfour himself is in the position of affirming nothing and denying nothing. He cannot even reaffirm his own doctrine of retaliation, for, with his Chamberlainite following, he must go the whole way or not at all. Yet the Premier's rather humiliating weakness on the main issue should not disguise the fact that he is pretty strong in the division lobbies. His appeal is to convinced partisans of Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's type, and even more to the numerous members of both sides who see in a general election the end of their Parliamentary lives—for the next appeal to the constituencies will probably make a revolutionary change in the personnel of the Commons. Everybody realizes that, and many who theoretically would like to upset the Ministry, practically stay their hands when they think of saying good-by to their seats. In rather striking contrast to Mr. Balfour's agility in keeping himself politically alive long after his political *raison d'être* has ceased, is Mr. Chamberlain's forthright capture of the Liberal-Unionist organization. To be sure, that is only a shell, but possession of it makes it easier to discipline the Free Trade Unionists, who will be driven into open secession with Mr. Winston Churchill's group, or back to the party fold with Sir Michael Hicks-Beach.

It is at last admitted in Parliament that war exists between England and Tibet. On all hands it will be a relief to be rid of the pretence of a diplomatic mission. The Government will now be able to call any one who questions the wisdom of the war a traitor, or, worse, a Little Englander. Lord Lansdowne has already termed the Tibetans "rabid barbarians," and the Ministerial press, which has been praising Col. Younghusband for emphasizing the amiability of the Lama's subjects, will doubtless follow Lord Lansdowne's lead. The whole affair shows once more that parliamentary safeguards are relatively useless when an executive officer is willing to take the chances of war. In the present case, Lord Curzon's expedition was organized on the principle of heads I win, tails you lose; for either a diplomatic or military triumph would presumably make him Duke of Lhasa. The reckoning, however, is likely to be painful to the Indian taxpayer, who will bear the brunt of the expense, and possibly to the rate-payer at home. Gen. Macdonald's brigade is already in a very insecure position, and reinforcements will probably have to be got up to the roof of the world. As significant, finally, as Lord Lansdowne's abuse of the enemy was the refusal of the War Office to forecast the probable settlement. This is in striking contrast to Mr. Balfour's general disclaimer of territorial ambitions in Tibet. Now that a state of war is admitted, the time for disclaimers is over.

Evidently the channel of Port Arthur is obstructed, not blocked, and all Japanese landing operations in the Liaotung Gulf are threatened by the existence of a formidable fleet in being. Since the loss of the *Hatsuse*, Togo's superiority is not sufficient to allow him to disregard the Port Arthur squadron, and it seems very likely that a descent in force upon Niu-Chwang must wait until Port Arthur is reduced and the Russian fleet destroyed. That should be a very costly matter, for it is probable that the attack will be pressed in order that Kuroki, who now seems waiting for the peninsula campaign to be carried out, may strike at Mukden before Kuropatkin has been greatly reinforced. In short, except for the presence of armies on the ground, the case stands as it did after the first attack upon Port Arthur; the Japanese must confine their operations to the Korean Gulf until it is certain that the Russian fleet cannot interfere with the transport service. Wild speculations as to the probability of the Baltic squadron changing the naval balance of power this summer bear their improbable character on their face.

The sinking of the *Hatsuse*, presumably by a Russian mine, while ten or twelve miles off Port Arthur, has excited wide discussion and, in some bosoms, a good deal of indignation. Outcries against the Russians are premature so long as we do not know whether they have done what they are charged with—namely, sowing mines broadcast in the open sea. The *Hatsuse* may have been destroyed by a mine accidentally adrift—perhaps by a Japanese mine. It remains true, however, that a grave principle of military and international law is involved in the dispute. That the laws of naval warfare should have been so little codified hitherto is somewhat surprising. The rules of war on land are much more elaborately and precisely fixed. The Hague Conference extended the principles of the Geneva Convention to maritime warfare, but that, of course, relates mainly to hospital ships, etc., and does not touch the questions now raised. A few national regulations have been published, as, for example, our own Naval War Code recently issued; but even here we get general principles rather than specific details. Our code, for example, permits "measures that are indispensable for securing the ends of the war, and that are in accordance with modern laws and usages of war." Evidently, that gets us "no forrarder." The very thing we want to know is, what are the laws and usages of war, as bearing on the employment of floating mines?

Americans and Englishmen are making the most numerous exclamations against these war implements. They do it, we must say, with uncommon ill grace; since it was they who, at the Hague Conference, consistently opposed the various proposals to diminish the destructiveness and cruelty of the weapons and methods of war. Against the prohibition of the "dum-dum" bullet and of shells containing asphyxiating gases, the American and English delegates voted. They were also more than cold to the propositions in the fourth paragraph of Count Muravieff's circular, one of which was: "The prohibition of the use, in naval battles, of submarine and diving torpedo boats, or all other agencies of destruction of the same nature." That, argued the Americans and English jointly, would be to put a check upon inventiveness; and Capt. Mahan recalled the fact that the first use of the torpedo was denounced as cruel and unlawful. He was for giving inventors free play.

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THE SELF-ELECTOR.

President Roosevelt's attitude towards his own election is paradoxical. On the one hand we seem to have a President of the nicest scruple and utmost delicacy. He will make no speeches to induce his fellow-countrymen to keep him in the Presidency. His record is before them: if they approve, and desire to reward, well and good; if not, he is prepared to accept their verdict with a quiet and even mind. In any case, he will maintain the dignity of his high office. He will not even resort to the time-honored device of receiving "delegations," over whose heads he may address the people with artful appeals for votes. All this regard for the proprieties is admirably—if a trifle ostentatiously—correct. We see joined to it, however, the spectacle of a President working for his reëlection with a directness, an unconcealed and unintermitted activity, and a choice of methods unexampled. Nothing is too small for Mr. Roosevelt's oversight. The platform has first to get his *imprimatur*. Even the speech in which he is to be nominated at Chicago must be submitted to his expert literary revision. For all we know, he may have designated the men who are to lead the cheering. No detail seems to escape him; for, as a somewhat disgusted Republican Senator said, when referring to the party's political arrangements, "The President bothers about everything." As for the selection of a National Chairman, Mr. Roosevelt has made that a personal perquisite in a way to attract unfavorable comment from even the most loyal of Republicans, as the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent frankly admits.

To break up a Cabinet in order to get a head for a political committee, strikes people as a violent process. Secretary Cortelyou has barely begun his work in a department which the President himself has described as of the highest importance. Execution of some of the policies supposed to be nearest his heart is confided to the Secretary of Commerce. Yet the latter is to throw up his office and give way to an untried successor, all for an imagined exigency in party politics. To the objections of Republicans who have borne the heat and burden of the day—namely, that Mr. Cortelyou is too recent a convert from Democracy (he voted for Cleveland in 1892) to be placed in charge of the Republican campaign—we attach little weight. The significant thing is, that the President is ready to disarrange Government affairs in order to secure a chairman who shall be, in a peculiar sense, his personal representative. What is left, then, of the President's assumed delicacy? He will not speak, but he will work and plan night and day; he will dictate everything; he will be his own manager, for, of course, Cortelyou really means Roosevelt; he will not fling himself at the heads of the people, but he will control and minutely supervise every man who goes to them in his name.

This is not all. The man whom the President has personally selected to extol and nominate him at Chicago went direct from the White House to tell the reporters of his profound disgust with those who were making it a "fad" to "war against vice." At the very moment when the Bishop of New York was congratulating the community on the triumph of a great moral protest, and when the press, both secular and religious, was recording and rejoicing over the victory, ex-Gov. Black was declaring that "the whole thing reeks of hypocrisy." This was no insinuated scoff of a coward tongue; it was the unblushing, the open, the cynical, and deliberate utterance of President Roosevelt's chosen spokesman.

Washington dispatches inform us that Mr. Roosevelt, with a fine detachment all his own, has already read over the ex-Governor's laudatory speech, and is convinced that it will produce a deep impression upon both convention and country. It may. If the Democratic press seizes the opportunity now before it, Mr. Black's contempt for reform and public morality will be so well understood that his praise of the reforming and moral Roosevelt will seem like elaborate sarcasm. It is no new thing for the ex-Governor. His present scorn for those who would suppress felonious gambling recalls the disdain which he expressed in his first message to the Legislature for all who strove to improve the public service. At them, too, he sneered as men who had found in civil-service reform a "capital" without which they would be "bankrupt." Their plan, he affirmed, was not "necessarily high-toned because it lacks common sense"; and he went on with the frank brutality of a jobber in offices to say that "in my judgment civil service [*sic*] will work better with less starch."

Mr. Roosevelt strove mightily, when Governor, to put back the starch which Gov. Black took out. That showed sufficiently what he thought of his predecessor's methods. What he thought of his political manners and morals has been in no doubt. The cynical spoilsman can have but the smallest personal attraction for the hearty reformer. Why, then, was the cynic selected to sound the praises of the reformer? Only, we suppose, on that theory of being "devilish sly" in politics which occasionally afflicts and subdues President Roosevelt. His idea appears to have been that it was necessary to reassure other States about his prospects in New York. Disquieting rumors have been afloat. It has been alleged that the Republican machine was not enthusiastic. So the President has reached for a man in the very interior of the machine. The ex-Governor is an epigrammatic orator, and if he follows his native impulses his phrase-making will be at the expense of the reformer and an insult to the moralist. He is quite capable of glorifying his own spoilsman's principles, and asking the Convention if it cares anything about "a jobless faith, or a creed which dooms a man to a lean and plunderless integrity."

THE WESTERN REPUBLICAN CONVENTIONS.

Republican conventions in Western States have no pity, this year, for the repose of Presidential candidates. The outright split in Wisconsin last week is a cloud on Republican prospects considerably bigger than a man's hand. If persisted in, the bolt led by Senator Spooner will infallibly enable the Democrats to elect a Governor, while, in the war to the knife between the two Republican factions, Congressional districts are in danger of being lost and the electoral ticket itself is in peril.

Of the merits of the Wisconsin quarrel it is impossible for the distant observer to gain a clear view. Each side denounces the other in unmeasured terms. Each accuses the other of cheating. A man so devoted to party "regularity" as Senator Spooner, and so fertile in metaphysical reasons for surrendering his private judgment to party policy, must have felt himself bitterly wronged before being willing to lead a revolt. Yet it does not appear that his faction would have had a majority of the convention even if the contesting delegates had been seated. Doubtless the intention is to get the National Convention, or the National Committee, to adjust the differences; and every effort will surely be made to induce the two factions to relax their grip on each other's throat. But party strifes of this kind are notoriously hard to quell, even if a formal truce be declared; and Republicans who remember what havoc was wrought by "half-breeds" and "stalwarts" in this State, cannot but be disturbed as they see those very names, and the ferocity that went with them, making themselves at home in Wisconsin.

It is true that Senator Spooner gives his assurance that there is no danger to party prospects in the nomination of two State tickets. Certainly the plurality of 105,000 for McKinley electors in 1900 yields a good margin of safety. Still, there are manifest difficulties, and not the least of them is found in the Wisconsin ballot law. The two conventions at Madison named the same set of Presidential electors, indeed, but the statutes forbid the printing of any candidate's name twice on the official ballot, even though he is nominated for the same office by several organizations. Since the two tickets were put forth simultaneously, each elector will appar-

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ently have the right to decide in which party column his name shall appear. Unless some truce is patched up, therefore, or one faction submits to being thrown out of court by the National Convention, it will require a large amount of "splitting" for either "stalwart" or "half-breed" to vote a full electoral ticket. Mechanically speaking, it will be very much easier to vote the full Democratic ticket. In view of the dangers, it is hard to believe that such astute politicians as are engineering the Wisconsin fight will maintain their unyielding attitude after the National Convention has pronounced on the question of regularity.

In Illinois, the celestial angers of the State Convention have been varied by Olympian laughter. So prolonged and stubborn a contest for the nomination of Governor is without precedent, certainly for many years. On its face, the struggle might be thought to be an old-fashioned one between rival aspirants, without the intervention of a machine to make everything go off with smooth celerity; but closer inspection shows that it is simply three or four machines in a deadlock. The solidity and stolidity of the array of delegates for each of the leading candidates bespeak pledged and fettered men rather than representatives of the party met to consult its highest interests. Gov. Yates has been one of the most conspicuous son-of-his-father failures; while an argument openly used in behalf of Lowden is that, being very rich, he can afford to be an honest Governor.

What one is most struck by, however, in all this hurly-burly of quarrelsome conventions, is the indication that the whole system is breaking down. There is nothing sacred about it. It was merely a party shift, to begin with, supplanting the Congressional caucus only because it was expected to work better. But it now working pretty badly. Conventions are confessedly unwieldy—members in some States run to 1,500, or more—and expensive; and if they lead to many more such wearisome deadlocks or huge wrangles as we are now seeing, the question of an alternative method may well be raised. Of course, the idea was to base the convention as broadly as possible so as to give the people large participation, and hence make them more satisfied with the result. In practice, however, it appears that 1,500 nobodies are less fitted to deliberate and decide wisely than 100 capable men, while much more exposed to being deceived or corrupted or led away madly in a "stampede." With the thousand or more delegates on the floor, we have come to have the 5,000 or so in the galleries, doing all they can to make the convention take on the appearance of a mob, and so still further to degrade it. After the Chicago Convention of 1892 there was much discussion of the evils of crowd-ridden conventions, and proposals were made to limit them to actual delegates and reporters for the press. The proceedings at Springfield, Ill., certainly point to the need of some such remedy, joined with a limitation of the number of delegates, if the whole convention system is not to fall into disrepute.

And how strange a light do the Wisconsin and Illinois rows throw upon the conception of government by party! "Party," wrote Burke, "is a body of men united, for promoting by their joint endeavors the national interest, upon some particular principle in which they are all agreed." But what principle, particular or general, unites or divides these warring Republican factions? They profess the same party doctrines, yet they fly at each other like wolves. No principle whatever is at stake. Spoils, power, office, plunder—these are the controlling things. And what we ask is how even a National Convention, dominated by men who dream only of patronage and faction and personal advantage, can be expected to formulate a real body of party principles? Drawn by their hand, the platform is sure to be, in Burke's language again, "unsafe to touch and unsafe to stand on"—"a tessellated pavement without cement."

NEGRO CHURCHES.

"The negro church," declared the report of the Atlanta Conference of 1898, "is the only social institution of the negroes which started in the African forest and survived slavery; under the leadership of priest or medicine man, afterwards of the Christian pastor, the church preserved in itself the remnants of African tribal life, and became after emancipation the centre of negro social life." The extended study of American negro churches, made under the direction of Atlanta University and just published, approaches the subject from this point of view.

Of all the forces active in the negro's uplifting, his church is the one which is most self-directed, and does its work along the lines of the inherited tendencies of the race instead of against them. Regarded as the direct descendant of the wild gatherings in the African jungles for the Obeah sorcery, both the strength and the weakness of the negro church can be better understood. While the political rights of the race have been denied, its churches have been allowed to flourish, with but few exceptions, since the time when the theologians discovered that it was proper to hold Christians in slavery. One of the most impressive facts brought out in the present monograph is the strong desire of the negro to have churches of his own, with the great number of instances in which these have been successfully established and maintained. "Nothing is more striking or hopeful for the negroes than the manifest fact that mere charity of patronage, however bountiful, has not satisfied them." The richest denomination "has nearly the smallest negro membership, not because it does not give to them, but because it does not treat them as equals." On the other hand, the denomination with the largest negro membership "is confronted by the strange fact that its black members have actually refused alms, while the Methodist Episcopal Church has a hard time to keep its colored membership from secession, despite pecuniary advantages." While in many cases established by missionary efforts of the whites, the 27,000 negro churches, with their three and a half million members and thirty millions of property, are monuments to the negro's own zeal. The congregation becomes his social unit. His naturally demonstrative and emotional nature gives character to his worship.

The vital present problem is the supplanting of the old-time emotional exhorter, famous only for the "rousement" of his discourses, divorcing his religion entirely from practically morality, and often setting the worst of examples in his personal life, by the educated minister who becomes a force for good among his people. The change in the old order encounters tremendous difficulties. The negroes are prone to schism, and are only too ready to leave a church or get rid of its pastor if the preaching fails to suit their taste. Young men who are capable of better things in the pulpit, are often forced by circumstances too strong for them into following those traditions of the negro church which take it farthest back toward barbarism.

Those who compiled the Atlanta report chose as fields for more detailed study a Black-Belt county, and cities and towns of various sections, both North and South. Opinions which were collected from intelligent negroes as well as white men show decided differences in regard to the way in which the church is fulfilling its trust. In Thomas County, Ga., where the churches have split until there is one to every 150 negroes, the investigator reports that the young people look upon these largely as "bureaus to provide amusement" (not all white churches are free from like reproach), and that "some of the secret societies are more vigilant as to their constituencies than the church." Scandals concerning the preachers are frequent. "The majority of ministers," says the report, "are unlearned or ignorant men, ignorant in the sense of fitness for leadership." In the larger cities, on the other hand, where common interest in property keeps congregations together, the standard appears to be far higher. Many instances are reported in which colored ministers have the thorough esteem and

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confidence of the white men in their communities. Outside of certain localities, the evidence can hardly be disputed that there has been improvement of late years both in the character of ministers and in the general moral level of the people. "Forty years ago," says the report of the Baptist Home Mission Society, "the minister who could read was the exception; now the exception is one who cannot." Under conditions of freedom, it is the almost unanimous opinion of those, both white and black, whose views have been sought, that the crying need of the negro church is for a devoted, intelligent, and high-principled ministry.

"The best negroes," said a Southern delegate before the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church recently, "are the Roman Catholics and the Presbyterians." The element of truth behind such a statement as this is probably that the class which leaves the "shouting" Baptist or Methodist Church for a colder intellectualism on the one hand, or a solemn ritual on the other, is likely to be above the average in intelligence and character. One of the contributors to the Atlanta report makes an interesting analysis of the history of the negro ministry. The minister of slavery and early freedom was ignorant, but a real leader of his people in temporal as well as spiritual affairs. Such instances are to be found as that of "Uncle Jack" in Virginia, whose freedom was bought for him by his white neighbors, and whose influence over his people was so great that planters, instead of punishing their slaves, often referred them to the discipline of their pastor, which was more effective. After the war, the negro congregations were without homes, and the minister who could raise money for church building came into favor regardless of his piety or morality. Church debts since that time have made it necessary to have ministers who could keep the churches full, and have distracted interest from the spiritual aspects of religion. When the children in the colored public schools of Atlanta were asked for their definition of Christianity, less than half gave preference to a moral conception over a more or less hazy theology. The minister most needed by the negro is one who shall bring his religion into as close connection as possible with every-day life.

A CORPORATION AND ITS SOUL.

Though corporations usually have no souls, the Western Union at any rate is undergoing the painful process of acquiring one. During the last few weeks the officers and directors of the company have received enough spiritual admonition to create a soul under the ribs of death. President Clowry's order of Tuesday week, cutting off telegraphic service from the poolrooms, indicates a growing knowledge not only of practical affairs, but also of moral law. If the public did not take Col. Clowry's announcement at its face value, he has only himself to blame for the prevalent skepticism, since his case is not unlike that of the maid who, whispering she would ne'er consent—consented.

When the committee of the City Club charged officers of the Western Union with knowingly abetting a felony, and with coöperating to make the running of poolrooms secret and successful, President Clowry remained silent for a few days. Then he issued a carefully written statement in which, evading the main charge of complicity in crime, he declared that the company was not a moral censor, and could not refuse to transmit racing or any other news that was couched in decent language. He entirely ignored the accusation that the Western Union gathered the news from the racetracks, sold it to the poolrooms, made special arrangements for eluding the police in delivering it, and kept inspectors busy to prevent leakages from poolrooms that paid for the news to other rooms that were trying to steal it. Nevertheless he was willing to reverse his position and become a moral censor if the civil authorities would request the company to withdraw its service from any particular poolrooms.

The inconsistency of this plea was pointed out by many commentators, especially by Police Commissioner McAdoo, who replied that President Clowry already had far more knowledge of the poolrooms than the police could possess. Western Union operators and instruments were in every room; the Western Union inspectors were on guard; and the Western Union treasurer received the daily tribute from the gamblers. If the company were really in earnest about purging itself, it need not wait for the Commissioner of Police, but could act on its own private information.

The discovery that the Western Union was an accomplice in crime was a severe shock to a number of worthy gentlemen in the directorate, who had not followed the details of operation, and who were keenly pained by the additional facts brought out in public discussion as well as by the severe comment from press and pulpit. Senator Chauncey M. Depew declared that unless the company set itself right, he would resign from the board; and everybody was aware that men like Morris K. Jesup and Jacob H. Schiff would never rest under the imputations that were laid against the Western Union. Mr. Schiff was abroad, but the common report—since confirmed—was that Mr. Jesup was demanding immediate action by the directorate. People were naturally surprised, therefore, when the Executive Committee merely endorsed President Clowry's utterance, shifted back to the police the responsibility for action against particular poolrooms, and promised that *hereafter* racing news should be furnished "only to such applicants as shall give assurance that it is not to be used for poolroom purposes." The resolutions of the Executive Committee obviously failed to meet the situation; they were a virtual admission that the Western Union was willing to cease co-partnership with felons only when the police had evidence against it; in other cases the company would continue to defy law and decency.

A more untenable position could scarcely be imagined. It was a confession of guilt and a refusal to reform except under compulsion. President Clowry found himself under a cross-fire from the press, from certain of his own directors who were less satisfied than ever with the conduct of affairs, and—worse than all—from the District Attorney. The wicked flee when no man pursueth, but, as is well known, a pursuer quickens the pace. By a curious coincidence the public received almost simultaneously two pieces of news: President Clowry, on his "own initiative," had discontinued the official delivery of reports of horse races to all classes of subscribers in the city of New York; District Attorney Jerome had begun an inquiry into the connection between the Western Union and the poolrooms. To establish a relation of cause and effect between these two facts is impossible. It is enough to remark that President Clowry threw to the winds his elaborate argument about the legal duties of a common carrier, discarded his objections to becoming a moral censor, and treated as so much waste-paper the unhappy endorsement of his own Executive Committee. In his latest utterances he comprehends the situation far more clearly than he did at first. In response to the question whether his company will lease wires to poolrooms, he declares emphatically: "Certainly it will not. When an application to lease a wire is made to us, we will inquire into the use to which it is to be put, and if that use is illegal we will refuse the lease. Poolrooms are illegal, hence we will do no business with them." Col. Clowry further asserts his right to annul the lease of a wire: "No contract is binding when it is in violation of the Penal Code and against the public good. Therefore we need not lease wires to poolrooms, and will not do so."

FRANCE AND THE VATICAN.

Of the Pope's circular note of protest against President Loubet's visit to Victor Emanuel III., there seems to be only one opinion, namely, that it was a grave mistake, and augurs ill for the future diplomacy of the Holy See. The pity of it is that the protest was evidently dictated by a sincere, if narrow,

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piety, and the consequences of this ill-advised expression recall Père Hyacinthe's recent criticism, that "nothing is more dangerous in a Pope than piety when it is subject to the influence of a Secretary of State more or less of a Spaniard and a reactionary." As if to confirm this view, Mgr. Méry del Val's hand is thought to appear in an alteration of the circular letter. The version which reached the French Foreign Office lacked certain minatory phrases which went to all the other chancelleries of the Catholic world. Naturally, this suppression, once discovered, has heightened the offence.

Let us admit that, from his own point of view, the Pope was absolutely right in resenting a recognition of the usurping house of Savoy, which involved the disregard of the Holy See. President Loubet's visit must inevitably have been offensive to the Vatican. But it was highly inexpedient for Pius X. to seek a diplomatic remedy which was no remedy at all. A public reaffirmation of the temporal power, a measured complaint against the Trasteverine "captivity," would have shown that the Vatican yielded no point of principle. Such an encyclical need not have mentioned the French visit. The coincidence would have pointed the reference to President Loubet. A letter addressed only to the faithful would not have become a Parliamentary order of the day at Paris, whereas the circular note has already provoked serious reprisals in the withdrawing of the French Ambassador to the Vatican, and the whole matter will be laid before the Chamber of Deputies this week to add bitterness to the anti-Clerical agitation.

Already it is rumored that M. Combes will demand the denunciation of the Concordat, with the complete separation of Church and State in France. That he desires this may safely be assumed; that the French Republic can afford to give the Church its liberty, by withholding State support from it, is very doubtful. For Napoleon's momentous treaty of 1801 with the prisoner Pope Pius VII. was in some respects merely the logical formulation of principles worked out through many centuries of conflict between the Kings of France and the Popes. From St. Louis's time France had claimed the right of nominating bishops; Louis XIV. was ignominiously beaten on that issue, but Napoleon secured the important right beyond the possibility of reasonable dispute, and by nominating bishops under the Concordat France gains a national character for her Church, and guards against its undue political subservience to the Roman Curia. The agreement to pay a fixed stipend to the secular clergy arose naturally out of the Revolutionary theory of the Church as a function of the centralized State. The power to discontinue the stipend is the power to regulate the attitude of the priests towards the nation—to reward the loyal and to punish recalcitrants. At the comparatively slight expense of $10,000,000 a year, the Government of a country still profoundly Catholic at heart becomes at once the protector and the controller of the Church.

Imagine the Concordat abolished, and all moral claim to control would vanish. To-day, the Government peremptorily closes the convents and abolishes the Catholic schools, chiefly because the patron of the Church is necessarily its master. On the other hand, any attempt to regulate the bishops or the parish priests, after the Concordat had been abolished, would amount to tyranny. Now the Government has special rights over the Church; then it would have only the general rights it exercises over all citizens and associations. With Church and State fully independent, it would be as outrageous to interfere with Catholic education in France as it would be with, say, Methodist education in America.

As the case stands, the Catholic Church in France is in admirable condition for its work. Throughout the country parishes one finds curés not only of simple piety and saintly life, but also of fine education and breeding. No one who has observed the work of such men in the country towns, where in many cases the curé is maintained only by the national stipend, would wish to see their enlightening influence withdrawn. Often these men are about the only persons in a village whose life makes positively for morality or ideality of any kind. Largely because of the overt contempt of religion so prevalent in modern France, the parish priests generally have developed those heroic qualities which are the fruits of persecution. In the dislocation which would follow the abolition of the Concordat, the Church might suffer in tone. Many parishes would be abandoned, the missionary work necessitated by the change would be conducted not by loyal bishops, but in many cases by political bishops, eager only for ecclesiastical advancement. At some distant day the Church might be the better for regaining its freedom; for the present, one could anticipate only a considerable loss in spirituality and moral efficiency.

Over-clever persons, it may be said in conclusion, detect behind Pius X.'s gigantic indiscretion the instigation of the German *diabolus ex machina*. Nothing seems less probable. The Pope has simply done what seemed good to him as an unyielding potentate; it is not likely that he took counsel of any one. The result, of course, will be to turn the Vatican towards Germany because away from France. Far beyond the Roman Catholic Church, Pius's singularly ill-phrased and ill-timed letter will be regretted. Many who have deprecated a certain casuistical element in Leo XIII. will ask themselves, if, since the Vatican is inevitably in politics, there is not much virtue in a political Pope.

THE ARCHÆOLOGICAL INSTITUTE OF AMERICA.

NEW YORK, May 18, 1904.

On May 12-14 the annual meetings of the Council of the Archæological Institute of America, and of the committees of its affiliated schools — of Classical Studies at Athens and in Rome, and of Oriental Study and Research in Palestine—were held in this city, and brought together a notable body of scholars. The general meetings of the Archæological Institute, for the reading and discussion of scientific papers, are held, as your readers will remember, in the Christmas holidays. The Institute celebrates this year the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation, and may look with just pleasure on what it has accomplished—particularly on the present and promised future of its Schools. In membership the Institute has grown more rapidly during the last few years than ever before, and now has more than fourteen hundred members, in fifteen affiliated societies reaching from Boston to California. Two societies have been added in the course of the past year, in Colorado and in Southern California. The latter, with its headquarters at Los Angeles, is proving already one of the most active and vigorous of all, having within five months secured ninety members and an important collection of books and paintings (formerly the property of the Franciscan mission) as a nucleus for a museum, and entering heartily into the work of making phonographic records of Indian and Mexican music. The Institute has persuaded Mr. Arthur Farwell, whose acquaintance with Indian music is as intimate as that of any other American, to spend three months this summer at Los Angeles in the transcription and classification of these records, and Professor Stanley of the University of Michigan also hopes to give some time to this undertaking. That these musicians will have in many instances the opportunity to cause a song to be repeated by the singer, and need not trust entirely to a single phonographic record, will be recognized as a great advantage.

The addition to the Institute of several affiliated societies in the West naturally leads it to resume the greater activity in the field of American archæology which it exerted during the first years of its existence, particularly through the work of Mr. Bandelier. The resources of the Institute are so small in comparison with those of several museums and other organizations which are busy in this field, that it cannot vie directly with them, but it hopes, as in the past, to find within its means some important work which has been neglected by other agencies. At present the Institute maintains a fellowship in American archæology, the incumbent of which is living with the Mayas and studying their customs. In particular the Institute expects to exert needed influence and to attain important results through its affiliated societies in the West. At its recent meeting, the Council of the Institute created a committee on the preservation of monuments of American antiquity, and urged its societies in the West to take an active part in securing

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measures to this end. As a national body, with societies in five of the Western States as well as in the East, the Institute has peculiar opportunities for obtaining information as to what is desirable and practicable, both from the men of science who are connected with museums, and from those who live in proximity to the monuments and know exactly what the condition of these is, and what are the threatening dangers.

For the last twenty years, the Institute has furthered research mainly through its schools. In the publication of the results of research, its chief enterprise has been its journal, the *American Journal of Archæology*. Together with its School at Athens, however, it publishes 'The Argive Heræum,' of which the second and concluding volume will be issued before the close of this year. It stands sponsor also for the masterly drawings by Mr. Bacon and Mr. Walker of the architectural remains at Assos, for the facsimile of the important Venetian manuscript of Aristophanes which was published a year ago, and for Professor Frothingham's expected work on the Arch of Trajan at Beneventum. At its recent meeting, arrangements were made for the publication of a quarto volume of papers of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome, a copy of which will be sent to every member of the Institute, and for a Bulletin of the Excavations at Corinth by the American School at Athens.

The changes made at the last meeting in the lists of officers of the Institute and its schools were slight. Professor Hoppin of Bryn Mawr will serve next year as associate to the director of the School at Athens, and Professor Carter of Princeton will render a similar service to the School in Rome, while Professor Schmidt of Cornell will be the director of the School in Palestine. Messrs. Harriman and Macmahon were appointed fellows of the School at Athens, and Messrs. Harmon and Van Buren received fellowships in the School in Rome. Professor White of Harvard was invited to represent the Institute at the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies, next July, and Professor Wheeler of Columbia was asked to be the representative at the Congress of Archæologists to be held in Athens next April. Mr. Arthur Evans of the Ashmolean Museum and of Crete, and M. Th. Homolle of Delphi and Delos and of the Museum of the Louvre, were elected honorary members of the Institute.

The next meeting of the Council and of the committees of the schools will be held in Boston next December in conjunction with the general meeting for the reading of papers. The change of the time of meeting from May to December was for the convenience of scholars whose homes are in the West and who cannot leave their work conveniently in May. A cordial invitation was received to meet in Washington, but this was not pressed, in consideration of the appropriateness of the Institute's celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary in the city of its birth.

CORSICA AND ITS PEOPLE.

CORSICA, April, 1904.

In a previous letter I have written about Corsica as a land; let me now say something of the men who dwell therein.

The first question which a reader will ask is the question which in the Odyssey is always first asked regarding any race to whose shores the wandering voyager is driven: Are they savage, or are they friendly to strangers, and with a kindly mind? This question is quickly answered. The island, despite its reputation, is perfectly safe for a traveller, as safe as Massachusetts, safer than Missouri or Montana. There is still a good deal of murder going on. The vendetta remains; not, indeed, so frequent as when Mérimée wrote his novel of 'Colomba,' seventy years ago, not perhaps more frequent than in eastern Kentucky; but sufficiently frequent to excite little censure from the educated class and still to win the sympathy of the ordinary man. The family tie is extremely strong, and the sense of honor extremely susceptible, so that assassinations to revenge the slaughter of a relative or to wipe out an insult are pretty common. They are lightly punished, usually by three years' imprisonment, if the offender has not cared to make his escape to Italy. But this is the only sort of crime that is rife. The expression "bandit" denotes not a robber, but a man who, having killed some one, has taken to the *maquis* (heath), *i. e.*, has forsaken his village to hide in the tall heath scrub or low woodland which covers most of the island, and which is so impenetrable that twenty gendarmes may fail to find an outlaw in a single valley, and fail the more easily because he has usually the good will of the inhabitants. There is living at this moment in Corsica a famous "bandit," more than eighty years of age, who in his youth and middle age killed not a few persons, and who, after many adventures and various dealings with the French authorities, is now peaceably ending his days as a hero, or a national curiosity, whose photograph figures on picture postcards in all the shops of Ajaccio and Bastia. Most of the old *voceri*, rude popular ballads, sometimes striking in their forcible simplicity, turn on the vendetta; and one of the best known of these describes a girl who, being left the last of her house, with no male relative to carry on the family feud, devotes herself to avenging the death of her father.

Corsica is like Ireland, where, if you have nothing to do with the local troubles of the country—in Corsica as in Ireland they often turn upon land disputes—you can travel alone and unarmed everywhere. In Corsica, as in Ireland, robbery is disapproved, for robbery belongs to what the Irish call "dirty crime" (*i. e.*, crime unconnected with land questions or with politics), and the pride of a Corsican scorns the action. They are a proud people, with a high sense of independence and of personal dignity, and they have so recently emerged from a state of what was virtually private warfare, when everybody carried arms and used them freely, that their hot blood has not yet had time to cool. But they are not an unkindly or repellent people. People greet one another pleasantly on the road; the stranger is shown his way with friendly alacrity; the landlord gossips cheerfully to his guest about crops and the village life. They are not, however, so vivacious and so talkative as either the French of Aquitaine or the Italians of Tuscany; indeed, a comparatively taciturn people, not deficient in force or intelligence, but incurious, not much interested in the things of the mind, and far less industrious than are the peasants of Liguria or Lombardy.

There are few of them. With an area of 3,367 square miles (a little less than Porto Rico), Corsica has only 395,000 inhabitants (about eighty-eight to the square mile). Most of her surface is no doubt mountain or rough woodland, not fit for cultivation; but if the parts that are cultivable were developed, she could support a population three or four times as large as she has now. Not only are there wide tracts in the level east coast now deserted (owing to malarial fevers) which might be profitably tilled, but there are in many other districts hillsides fit for vine and olive and fruit trees which are left to be browsed over by goats, the mainstay of the peasantry. As the Corsican women have less personal beauty than those of middle Italy or southern Spain, so the Corsican man is seldom tall or striking in appearance. He has the strong face, the active frame, the quick movements of the mountaineer. But he doesn't like hard work. Seldom can he be induced to carry even a traveller's knapsack, though this may be partly due to his pride. He loves to sit in the sun in some open space on the edge of the village, with a group of others like-minded, discussing village affairs and, above all, politics. There is as much politics to the square yard here as in Greece or in New York. Nothing interests the Corsican so much. He does not read books; indeed, there are no bookshops outside Bastia and Ajaccio, and very few even in those towns. He does not care for beauty, for nothing can be less ornate than his house, within and without. There is not a moulding to the window, there is seldom a flower-pot in the room or a flower-bed outside. But he throws his whole soul into the getting and keeping of posts in the public service, especially local posts in the towns or villages, for this is what politics means. Laying its grasp upon the whole life, it pervades even business in the towns, and creates petty local factions everywhere. It naturally becomes associated with and intensifies the rivalry or hostility of families; indeed, it springs out of personal or family ambitions much more than out of any divergence of opinion on the controversies that distract the French Republic. Corsica forms a little world of its own, jealous of intruders, occupied by its local interests or passions. The bulk of the people would like to be Bonapartist, as they continued to be for a good while after the fall of the Second Empire. Now that the prospects of the scions of that family have died away, monarchical principles as principles have no great hold on the voters. Neither are they fervently Catholic, although more Catholic than their nearest French neighbors in Provence and Languedoc. But every election is contested with an immense zeal, and with an expenditure of money, not always a legitimate expenditure, disproportionate to the means of the electors and of the candidates.

Absorbed as Corsica is in herself, she has, nevertheless, no strong national feeling. The visitor is surprised at the want of it in a country so detached from the rest of the world, and a country which in the eighteenth century made so long and so stubborn a fight for freedom. A nation may be a nation, however small. The Ice-

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landers, of whom there have never been more than seventy thousand living at one time, are a nation. So, one may almost say, are the Montenegrins, who, till the recent extension of their territory, were even fewer than the Icelanders. But the Corsicans have never had an independent political life as a people, nor a literature, nor an art, nor any political traditions filling the popular mind. They have shown, even in these days of the revival of historical memories everywhere in Europe, no interest in their language, or in their folklore, or in their history, or in their monuments, scanty and unimportant at best, that have come down from prehistoric or Roman or mediæval times. Only to-day is a society for Corsican archæology being formed by a few of the more educated. Yet they are a community standing apart, neither truly French (for, though they are well content to belong to France, France has not assimilated them), nor yet Italian. Their tongue, still generally spoken by the mass of the people, though most understand French also, is indeed an Italian dialect; but they have little intercourse with that country, and no sort of wish to unite themselves politically to the new kingdom. (The cry of "Italia Irredenta" has never included Corsica, which is more truly Italian than Trieste or any part of the Dalmatian coast.) They love not France the more, but Italy less, for Italy is to the Corsicans associated with the harsh rule of Genoa, against which they frequently rebelled, and from which they passed to France, after a short struggle to stand alone under the gallant Paoli, who comes nearest to being their national hero. In the eighteenth century there was no longer a chance for a small people.

Strangely obscure seem the annals of this island when one compares them with those of Sicily or even Cyprus. Corsica is scarcely heard of in ancient times. One splendid chance she had to become a centre of civilization in the western Mediterranean when the Greeks of Phocæa, preferring exile and freedom to the over-lordship of the Persian kings, left their Ionian home to plant themselves at Alalia on the fertile eastern coast of Cyrnus, as the isle was then called. The hostility of the fierce Etruscan sea-robbers, leagued with the fleets of Carthage, led them to abandon their settlement, and Corsica relapsed into darkness. She is seldom mentioned in Roman days, seldom in the Middle Ages. Few, indeed, were the persons of note that come from her down till modern times. The one who climbed highest was Formosus, a native of Vivario near Corte, who, as a leader of one of the factions at Rome, became Pope in the ninth century. A later Pope, exercising that amazing right which the chair of Peter claimed over all islands, and in respect of which Adrian the Fourth bestowed Ireland on King Henry the Second, gave Corsica to the Pisans, but they held only a part of it, and ultimately lost it to the Genoese. If it was ever really feudalized, the traces of feudalism have practically vanished. Few castles remain, and there are now scarcely any families uniting large possessions to social predominance. A spirit of equality reigns which is not wholly due to the republicanism of France, but recalls the communal system under which large districts seem to have lived in the Middle Ages.

Corsica makes to-day upon the visitors the impression of a country which has remained curiously detached from the main movements of European history. One must travel as far as Lapland in one direction or southern Russia in another to find a region with so little in it to recall the long past during which the peoples that are now most advanced have been struggling upwards into civilization. Even its towns, except the old quarter of Bastia and the villages (for one can hardly call them towns) of Corte, Calvi, and Bonifacio, have preserved scarcely anything of a character that can suggest the vicissitudes through which they have passed. It has no literature and no art. It is a piece of the early mediæval world which, until a century ago, had scarcely begun to share in the general progress of mankind. Such history as it has is a dim and doubtful record of petty conflicts. Only once has it affected the great procession of events, but on that one occasion it affected the procession of events to some purpose. That was when it gave birth to the great conqueror and administrator whose brief career changed the face of Europe.

MARSHAL DE LUXEMBOURG.—II.

PARIS, May 3, 1904.

Luxembourg's great enemy, Louvois, died almost suddenly on the 15th of July, 1691. Louis XIV. wrote a letter to the Marshal to notify him, saying: "I invite you in this conjunction to redouble your care and vigilance, in order that this event may not be prejudicial to my service, and to let me know directly, till further orders, all that may happen." Louvois was replaced as minister of war by his third son, the Marquis of Barbezieux, a young man, twenty-three years old, intelligent but inexperienced. It is clear that the King intended to take upon himself the chief conduct of the war. "There is no day," says Dangeau, "when the King does not work eight or nine hours." Madame de Maintenon writes: "The King gives two or three hours to hunting, when he can. He comes back at six and goes on to ten, without stopping, reading, writing, or dictating. He often sends the princesses after supper to answer some courier." The correspondence preserved at the Ministry of War confirms these words; one finds in it letters of fifteen to twenty pages, dictated every day by Louis XIV., corrected, annotated with his hand, written to the generals commanding in various countries. "Without containing broad views," says M. de Ségur, "or conceptions of genius, these letters are distinguished by constant good sense, lucid precision, studied moderation, justice, and impartiality, which, more than the brilliant ornament of his reign, ought to assure to Louis XIV. the esteem and respect of posterity." They are remarkable for great preoccupation with equity, great horror of the petty abuses of power—very rare qualities in a monarch. The dispatches sent to Luxembourg show us at times a familiar, easy, almost modest, Louis XIV.

"I am sure," he writes in one, "that you will form the best resolutions on the spot; as for myself, I can speak only by the map, and, if I am mistaken, you must not be embarrassed by my remarks, which are probably too distant to be just. . . . I take the affairs of my armies much at heart. It is not astonishing if I think of all that might happen. . . . I know that I am not teaching you anything in sharing my intentions with you. When we made war together we always understood ourselves well. It seems to me that the distance which separates us does not hinder our thoughts from having some relation with each other."

I omit details of the manœuvres and marches of the campaign of 1691. The Allies made great preparations for the following campaign of 1692. Louis XIV. resolved to besiege Namur, and left in person for the frontier, accompanied in great number by the ladies of the court. The great engineers Vauban and Coëhorn conducted the operations of the siege. Luxembourg had command of a large army, which protected the besiegers. The King had in his carriage on his way to Namur the Princess de Conti, the Duchess de Bourbon, and the Princess d'Harcourt; in the coach of the Duchess de Chartres were the Duchess de Gramont, the Duchess de Chevreuse, the Countess de Mailly. Madame de Maintenon travelled in a separate carriage, and behind her was a long series of carriages full of ladies in splendid dresses. They all dined and supped in the carriages. Madame de Maintenon distributed money all the way to the poor. This extraordinary procession, worthy of the talent of Wouvermans, lasted six days. The King held a great review for the ladies before the troops were sent to Mons.

After the siege of Namur the King had to undertake the siege of the citadel; William of Orange could not save it, and forbore to attack Luxembourg, who guarded the siege; the citadel was obliged to capitulate. Luxembourg encamped his army at Steenkerque, feeling very quiet there, when William of Orange endeavored to surprise him. He was much superior in infantry, and Luxembourg's magnificent cavalry could not well aid him on narrow ground. The military genius of Luxembourg never served him better; the account given by M. de Ségur of the battle of Steenkerque is equal to the best chapters of military writers. The flower of the French nobility was engaged in the struggle. "It was," writes D'Artagnan, "the most magnificent spectacle that could be imagined." The English battalions showed their usual bravery and doggedness. The Mackay division was entirely exterminated; nothing was left of its five regiments, the finest in England. The loss of the Allies was estimated at twelve thousand men; the French lost eight thousand men. Paris was overjoyed; all the fine ladies adopted the "cravate à la Steenkerque," as the Prince de Conti, one of the heroes of the day, had worn a long cravat of lace round his neck during the charges which he led.

William of Orange does not seem to have shown his usual qualities at Steenkerque. "Where were your generals?" said Luxembourg ironically, a few days after the battle, to an English prisoner. William resented his defeat with unusual bitterness. After two months of delay, spent in marches and countermarches, he returned to Holland, leaving the command to the Elector of Bavaria. Luxembourg left his army to Boufflers, and had a triumphant return to Paris. He became the hero of the capital. In one of the songs of the day we read:

"D'honneur, je ne suis plus surpris
Qu'Atlas portât le céleste lambris, . . .
Comme dit la *Métamorphose*;

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Puisque nous voyons en ce jour
Que toute la France repose
Sur la bosse de Luxembourg!"

Luxembourg was slightly hunchbacked, and William alluded to it when he said that he never succeeded in seeing his back.

The ensuing campaign again brought Luxembourg and William face to face at Neerwinden. The account of this famous battle is even more dramatic, in M. de Ségur's volume, than the account of Steenkerque. This time William was attacked in his lines, which were a prodigy of camp fortification. Neerwinden was the central point; a triple assault of the place was necessary, and in the end, after repeated charges of cavalry, it remained in the hands of the French. The two sons of the Marshal were wounded under his eyes. William was obliged to give the signal for retreat. A panic seized a part of his troops, and a terrible slaughter took place in consequence. William, as firm and calm in defeat as in victory, rapidly repaired his losses, and, to the general surprise, Luxembourg made no move after his victory. His army was not paid regularly; several regiments were on the eve of mutiny. It was time to place the French troops in winter quarters.

Luxembourg returned to Paris. He was very coldly received at Versailles by the King and by the court, but he consoled himself with the ovations of the populace and the fanaticism of the army. The marshal had a proof of it when, the day after his return, he went to Notre Dame, where a Te-Deum was sung for the victory of Marsaglia (that of Catinat over the Duke of Savoy, on the 4th of October, 1693). From the vaults of the old cathedral hung, according to the fashion of the time, the flags captured from the enemy during the preceding years. Never had the vaults been adorned with such a profusion of standards; and of these hundreds of trophies, attesting the glory of our arms, Fleurus, Leuze, Steenkerque, and Neerwinden had furnished the better part. When Luxembourg arrived for the ceremony the attendance was complete; an immense multitude filled the church and its entrance. Frail, weak, of small size, Luxembourg had some difficulty in cutting his way through. The Prince of Conti was not far off. He goes to the Marshal, seizes him by the hand, and, showing him to the bystanders, "Make room," he shouts loudly, "make room for the *tapissier de Notre Dame.*" The words went echoing from mouth to mouth: "Room for the *tapissier de Notre Dame.*" The crowd, respectful and docile, opened its ranks, formed an alley with all heads uncovered; and, amid acclamations, advanced the man who incarnated at the time the fortune of France.

After painting the man of war, M. de Ségur paints the courtier, makes us acquainted with his private life, his pleasures, his tastes, his principal friends. These were all "libertines," men of pleasure—Albergotti, a Florentine who had entered the French army; the Marquis de Cavoye, the Count de Gramont, Roquelaure, a sort of buffoon. It is surprising to find the name of Racine among these. Louis XIV. said with a smile: "Cavoye with Racine thinks himself a *bel esprit*, and Racine with Cavoye thinks himself a courtier." But Racine may be believed when he wrote to Madame de Maintenon: "I dare say that the *grands seigneurs* ran after me much more than I after them; but, in whatever company I found myself, God gave me the grace never to blush at the name of the King or of the Gospel." The most intimate friend of Luxembourg was the Prince de Conti, the nephew of the great Condé, the brave soldier of Steenkerque and Neerwinden, "the most amiable and seductive of men," says Saint-Simon. "He was the Germanicus of our time," exclaims Saint-Simon. Luxembourg and Conti formed a sort of association and cabal to control the Dauphin, as the health of Louis XIV. was becoming precarious. M. de Ségur enters into many particulars as to the complicated intrigues Ségur established between the Princess de Conti and Mademoiselle Choin, the mistress of the Dauphin; he also speaks at length of the long trial of precedence which took place in the Parlement between the dukes and peers.

The opening of the campaign of 1694 interrupted this debate, and Luxembourg had to return to Flanders. The state of his finances obliged Louis XIV. to reduce the strength of his armies, and Luxembourg was constrained to act purely on the defensive. He succeeded in paralyzing by his manœuvres the forces of William of Orange.

The campaign ended to the satisfaction of the King, without any appreciable results for either party. On his return to Paris, Luxembourg occupied himself with his personal affairs, always in a state of great confusion, when he fell suddenly ill with pneumonia. The Marshal asked at once for Bourdaloue and for Fénelon. They both saw him in his last moments. The public consternation was great; it seemed to all as if the fortune of France was gone with the "tapissier de Notre Dame." Fifteen days after his death, however, Madame de Coulange wrote to Madame de Sévigné: "You may believe, madame, that nobody here imagines that there was but one M. de Luxembourg in the world; his best friends still meet often; the pretext is to cry, and to drink and eat and laugh and find themselves good company; and 'de Caron pas un mot.' So the world is made—the world we still like."

Correspondence.

THE SEACOAST OF BOHEMIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The idea of giving a seacoast to Bohemia did not originate with either Greene or Shakspere, but occurs in an earlier work, 'Florambel de Lucea,' as may be seen from the following piece of information extracted from it by Clémencin in his edition of 'Don Quijote' (Vol. III., p. 381):

"After sundry acts of prowess they landed in a seaport of Bohemia called *Esterlin.*"

The association with Hungary on a following page proves that the real Bohemia was meant. An extract from another book ('Emperor Esplandian') about California—this time an imaginary country—given on page 385 of the same volume, will probably interest American readers. O. T.

Notes.

The Librarian of Congress informs us that the Library is about to publish the first volume of a History of that institution, by Mr. Dawson Johnston.

The Irish Texts Society makes the satisfactory announcement that its Irish-English Dictionary, long in preparation, will be ready in August of this year. "It is estimated that the work will comprise nearly 800 pages, crown 8vo. It contains a far larger number of words used in the living Irish language and in the more modern written compositions than any Irish dictionary yet published. It is the first analytical dictionary of the language. The gender, genitive and plural are given with each noun, and copious examples are added of idiomatic forms, and especially of the employment of the various particles, whose uses and functions offer special difficulties to the student. The irregular verbs are illustrated by paradigms. In many cases the authority for a particular word is given, and the part of the country in which the word or expression is in use is indicated." The price will bring the work within the reach of all students. A specimen page shows that the type (brevier) is as clear as could be expected in a book meant for general use. If we may at all judge by this page, the dictionary will be an immense advance upon O'Reilly's, the only one heretofore available. With this and Fournier's English-Irish Dictionary, lately published, the older generation of those who have struggled with the difficulties of Irish will have reason to envy present-day beginners.

In June, the Macmillan Co. will publish the fourth volume in the Cambridge Modern History series, viz., 'The French Revolution,' and in the autumn the official biography of Burne-Jones.

Cassell & Co. are about to publish a 'Cyclopædia of Mechanics,' in eight volumes, edited by Paul N. Hasluck and copiously illustrated; and have already begun issuing in parts an illustrated 'History of the Russo-Japanese War.'

'Southern Thoughts for Northern Thinkers,' by Mrs. Jeannette Robinson Murphy, a collection of humorous negro stories, folklore, and articles upon the negro question, will be bound up with some thirty slave songs gathered by the author in her native Kentucky, together with "several essays upon the origin of this barbaric music and how to sing it." It will bear the imprint of the Bandanna Publishing Co., No. 361 West Fifty-fifth Street, New York.

Little, Brown & Co. have nearly ready 'A Treatise on American Railroad Law,' by Judge Simeon E. Baldwin.

'Our Common Schools: Their Administration and Supervision,' by William E. Chancellor, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

A second book on animal life by Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts, entitled 'The Watchers of the Trails,' is announced by L. C. Page & Co., Boston.

A study of the nature of the borough in the minds of the Domesday valuers, 'The Domesday Borough,' by Adolphus Ballard, town clerk of Woodstock, which the Oxford University Press is on the eve of bringing out, is based on an independent collation of the Domesday evidence.

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The majority of names in Esther Singleton's 'Japan as Seen and Described by Great Writers'. (Dodd, Mead & Co.) are those of transient tourists or of persons having little or no acquaintance with the history and language of the country. Yet, on the other hand, such writers may give more vivid impressions. The extracts are arranged under the heads of Country and Race (without any reference to Satow), History and Religion (without any reference to Knox and other writers on religion), Places and Monuments, Manners and Customs, Arts and Crafts, and Modern Japan. The illustrations are numerous and excellent, reproduced from well-known photographs, and the selections are for the most part proportionate and in good taste. The editing and proofreading, however, are none of the best. Some of the French spellings, like Foudji (Fuji), Daiboudhs (Daibutsu), etc., in a book which is said to be both "edited and translated," are shockingly off from the standard which has been in use for now more than thirty years. A sentence describing *saké* as "fermented drink, rice brandy," is hardly in order from the point of view of science. Some of the photographs are wrongly marked. For example, the "Shinto Temple, Kobé" is nothing else than the familiar tomb of Kiyomori, which stands in the yard of a famous Buddhist temple. Some of the statements of Humbert, who wrote nearly forty years ago, are obsolete and anachronistic. To speak of Nijo (which was the Shō-gun's) as "the Mikado's palace in Kioto" is much the same as referring to the palace at Versailles as the German Emperor's. Such a book as this should have an index. It is neatly printed, handsomely presented, and contains much valuable and informing matter.

The photo-engraving processes have not often been turned to better account than in the beautiful treatise, 'How to Make a Flower-Garden' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). Professor Bailey furnishes an attractive introduction, full of good sense and wise counsel, and contributes also a few short and instructive papers of a practical character. The rest of the book is a patchwork of most uneven quality. A few of the contributions are of a high order, while some are not at all in that class. But this was to have been expected when more than forty writers set about making a small treatise on gardening. The editor of such a treatise must be held blameless, for he cannot rewrite *all* the articles offered: the most that he can be required to do is simply to see that no misleading advice finds its way into the pages. So far as a careful perusal has gone, no serious errors of statement or advice have been detected, and the book as a whole can be recommended as both charming and useful.

In 'Trees and Shrubs,' Part III. (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), Professor Sargent continues to make excellent use of the remarkable skill of the botanical artist Mr. Charles E. Faxon. Twenty-five "new or little known ligneous plants" are here brought under Mr. Faxon's pencil. In addition to the accompanying descriptions given by Professor Sargent, notes are presented by Messrs. Greenman, Rehder, and Shaw, the whole making an interesting as well as important contribution to dendrology. In this group of twenty-five species, *Cratægus* (Hawthorn) claims a prominent place, arrogating to itself eight of the plates. This genus has been of late undergoing a process of splitting-up until it seems to bid fair to become the terror of herborizers, very much as brambles now are in the Old World. The Southern species of *Cratægus* are numbered by the hundreds in a recent book, and the work has perhaps only just begun. It is likely that other polymorphic genera will now have to take their turn at disintegration; if so, it is to be hoped that the *disjecta membra* can secure as their pictorial recorder as accurate an artist as Mr. Faxon.

Mr. A. W. Verity has just added 'Hamlet' to his well-known editions of Shakspere's plays (The Macmillan Company). The scholarly character of these editions has been generally recognized, and the present volume is worthy of its predecessors. Indeed, the very full and careful Notes seem to us superior to those of any of the editions for college use now on the market. It is rather surprising to an American, however, to note, in a book that is evidently intended for advanced students, practically no references to recent German works relating to Shakspere. For example, we observe no citation of what is now undoubtedly the standard authority on Shaksperean grammar—namely, Franz's 'Shakespeare-Grammatik': and Abbott still seems to be the editor's guide in such matters. Similarly, König's treatise on Shakspere's versification—a work which was executed under the supervision of the late Professor Ten Brink—surely deserves a mention by the side of Abbott's less exhaustive treatment of the same subject. The same criticism might be extended to Mr. Verity's discussion of Hamlet's character, in which Dr. Loening's interpretation, that has made such a noise in the world, was worthy of a passing reference at least, if not of more. Finally, when the editor decided to devote four or five pages of an appendix to the famous Elizabethan stage-quarrel, with citations of the literature of the subject, he should certainly not have omitted to mention the most acute and learned book dealing with that controversy, namely, 'The Stage-Quarrel between Ben Jonson and the So-called Poetasters' (Breslau; 1899), by our countryman, the late Dr. R. A. Small.

Whoever likes to have some tolerable conception of the practical problems connected with things that he daily deals with, will be interested in a fairly readable little book entitled 'Electric Traction' (Whitaker & Co.), by John Hall Ryder, the chief electrical engineer of the London tramways. It discusses such details as controllers, conduit systems, accumulators, etc., from the point of view of a man in a high responsible position. The work is, to be sure, calculated for the meridian of Greenwich; but that only adds to its interest, especially as the author never loses sight of American practice, which indeed would be quite impossible in the field of electrical engineering. In special parts of that field Germany and France are in advance of us, although it is admitted that we lead on the whole. How backward England is in some respects is shown by Mr. Ryder's considering only direct-current dynamos, though the alternating system is used on the Manhattan Elevated, and though the majority of recent advances have been in that direction. On the other hand, he seems to have the best of the argument in condemning our conduits midway between the rails.

The new edition of Hawkins and Wallis's 'The Dynamo' (Macmillan) is, on its practical side, a new work. The first edition, which preceded this by just ten years, and which was in its day an admirable compendium, is now as much out of date as Johnson's Dictionary. The new edition, though double the size of the first, is relatively hardly as full, in view of the art's advance. It is easily the best book on the subject, but does not enter into the minutest details.

Prof. William Henry Boynton's 'Applications of the Kinetic Theory' (Macmillan) is a work comparable with the main text of Oscar Emil Meyer's celebrated treatise, from which it differs by its superior brevity, but chiefly by the study it gives to liquids. It is as lucid as possible. The author disclaims all originality, but he has performed his task with very marked ability. Yet we must protest against his narrow point of view. The theorem of the virial, which ought to be the very root of the whole tree, is barely mentioned, and is called an "abstraction." We cannot see the justice of this. Are students of physics supposed to be babies? Certainly, it is desirable to present the subject free from all the intricacies that Boltzmann and Burbury have introduced into it. But the theorem of the virial, instead of raising the difficulties and doubts that a too minute examination will bring out, enables the student to dispense with several arbitrary and almost absurd hypotheses. Prof. Boynton ought to reconsider that matter for another edition.

The volume which M. P. Alphandéry entitles 'Les Idées Morales des Hétérodoxes Latins au début du XIIIe' Siècle' (Paris: Leroux), is a creditable résumé of recent research on the heresies which preceded the rise of the great Mendicant Orders, although it presents little if anything that is strictly new. The title is somewhat too restricted, for the moral conceptions of the heretics form but a small part of the subjects discussed, and it seems to have been adopted in conformity with the thesis that the heresies originated in a general popular desire for moral elevation which the Church, absorbed in consolidating its temporal power, neglected to furnish. It appears somewhat odd to find (p. xxv.) Innocent III. characterized as the first jurist to mount the papal throne, when Alexander III., the author of the 'Summa Rolandi' and of the 'Post Concilium Lateranense,' has already injected so much of the imperial jurisprudence into the canon law.

Gaston Paris died over a year ago, but obituary notices and appreciations of his work continue to be published in great number. Two of these are of especial interest—one by his successor at the Collège de France, Joseph Bédier, 'Hommage à Gaston Paris' (Paris: Champion), and a second by the most distinguished of Italian scholars, Pio Rajna, 'Gaston Paris: Discorso letto alla R. Accademia della Crusca' (Florence: Tip. Galileiana). The latter is especially concerned with Paris's relations to Italy and to Italian literature, and is enriched by numerous citations from letters to Amédée Durande and to Rajna himself. The former is the set *leçon d'ouverture* delivered on assuming the vacant chair in the Collège de France, and insists especially on the work of Paris in diffusing the scientific study of the French language and literature, and on his great influence in this direction, both in France and elsewhere.

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Precision of philological method M. Paris could communicate to his disciples, but few of them have as yet given evidence of the keen literary taste or the broad historical perspective that characterized their master.

The thirty-three years' work of the Bureau of Fisheries, described by Dr. B. W. Evermann in the *National Geographic Magazine* for May, shows remarkable scientific and economical results. It began when Prof. Spencer F. Baird, the first commissioner, established his headquarters at Woods Hole to investigate the causes of the decrease of food-fishes, and served without a salary till his death in 1887. The *Albatross*, "the first vessel ever built expressly for scientific work along biologic lines on the high seas," and still the best equipped, was launched in 1882, and her five years' work on the Atlantic Coast and sixteen in the Pacific, especially that directed by Professor Agassiz, has commanded the attention of the scientific world. On its collections alone have been based "about 100 new genera and more than 2,500 new species." One of the economic results of the Bureau's work is that the annual value of the fisheries through artificial propagation is three million dollars. The conclusion reached is that "cultivation of the coastal and interior waters is as possible and imperative as is cultivation of the land, and promises quite as rich returns. An acre of water can be made even more productive than an acre of land." In the same line is the successful method of inoculating sterile ground with nitrogen pursued by the Department of Agriculture. A small package of germs, like a yeast cake and costing about two cents, will suffice to endow the seeds of leguminous plants for one to four acres with marvellous power. The process of manufacture has been patented by its discoverer, Dr. George T. Moore, and by him "generously deeded to the American people." These articles are well illustrated, and that on the geography of Alaska is accompanied by the new Government map of that territory on the scale of forty miles to the inch, with 1,000-foot contours.

The history of poultry-raising and egg production in Denmark, as told in the Consular Reports for May, is full of suggestion for our small farmers. Up to within a few years the keeping of hens was regarded by Danish farmers as a necessary evil, and the few they kept received little or no attention. By means largely of co-operative societies for instruction in breeding and packing, and providing a market, the export of eggs, which began in 1867 with a few score thousands, was in 1902 thirty-six million dozens, worth $6,451,000. The Coöperative Egg Export Association has a membership of 33,500 farmers, divided into 500 local societies, the member's admission fee being thirteen and one-half cents. A noteworthy feature of this number is the references to great public works proposed in various countries. A plan for a "Longitudinal Railway," 1,200 miles long, running parallel with the coast, with sixteen branches and other railways and hydraulic works, at a total estimated cost of $93,440,000, has been submitted to the Chilean Congress. A recent convention of grain-growers has recommended the construction of a railway from Winnipeg to Hudson Bay in order to open up a vast tract of undeveloped grazing and wheat-growing land. An abstract is given of a report of a Russian engineer on the proposed Riga-Chersonese Canal uniting the Baltic and Black Seas, and bringing Odessa within twelve days' sail of St. Petersburg instead of forty-two as now.

A curious specimen of ancient superstition appears in a divination discovered by Professor Vitelli of Florence in an Egyptian papyrus of the Imperial period, and published by him in the *Atene e Roma*. In this writing we are concisely informed, in simple Greek, what pulsations felt in various parts of the human body signify. For example: "If the pulsation is felt in the right knee, this, as a general thing, indicates misfortune; in the case of slaves, it signifies something good; in the case of a young maiden, that she is being slandered; in the case of a soldier, some profit; in the case of a widow, joy. Pray to Chronos. If the pulsation is felt in the left knee, this, as a rule, indicates dissatisfaction; in the case of a slave, freedom; in the case of a maiden, marriage; in the case of a widow, a feast; in the case of a soldier, advancement. Pray to Demeter." The new find is the first specimen of this kind of literature that has ever been discovered. The names it assigns to the different parts of the body have an interest for the philologian and the student of medicine.

Hundreds of applications for a Chinese translation of the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' have been received by the representative of the Christian Literature Society for China at Shanghai. This striking indication of intellectual progress is doubtless due largely to the fact that, at the examinations for degrees, such questions as these are common: "Explain free trade and protection." "Wherein lies the naval supremacy of Great Britain?" "How do foreigners regulate the press, post-office, commerce, railways, banks, banknotes, taxation; and how do they get faithful men?" The publications issued by the above Society last year amounted to 36,000,000 pages, while pirated editions of many of the Society's books were published in several parts of the empire.

Egypt's industrial growth is indicated by the fact that the water gained by the building of the Assuan dam is insufficient to supply the demand. The Government is reluctantly compelled to refuse further applications for water. To meet this want, Sir William Willcocks, the great irrigation engineer, advocates the creation of a modern Lake Moeris in the depression to the south of the ancient lake which for more than 2,000 years served to control the floods of the Nile.

Mr. William Beer, librarian of the Howard Memorial Library, New Orleans, informs us: "The subject of the native French literature of Louisiana has received comparatively little study up to the present, from want of any adequate catalogues. Permit me to point out that the Exposition Française de la Louisiane, which represented the survival of the French spirit in that State, placed before the world an almost complete collection of the native literature. The catalogue of that exhibit included a list of French newspaper literature which had never previously been collected."

—'Writings on American History, 1902,' by Ernest C. Richardson and Anson E. Morse, is the first issue of what it is hoped may be a series of annual volumes devoted to the current bibliography of American history. "American" is interpreted to include the Americas; the present work attempting to cover the literature "exhaustively as regards the United States, rather fully for British America, and less fully for Latin America." Such a list is so welcome an addition to the historian's tools that one may well be glad to have it in any form, but the form and method are, unfortunately, subject in this case to serious exceptions. The editors have chosen the alphabetical subject form for the entries, dispensing altogether with the alphabetical author entries save under the several topics. For general use—and the editors seem to have had college undergraduates and the uncritical public especially in mind—this method has obvious advantages, provided one knows the subject under which the writings he desires have been listed; otherwise he may have to hunt for it. The topical subdivision here is minute, and a classified index, not alphabetical, may aid consultation; but the analysis is not complete, and there is a dearth of cross-references. Thus, information about the much discussed interoceanic canal will not be found under either "canal," "Panama," or "Nicaragua," but under "Isthmian Canal," while the seeker for the literature of "Expansion" will find it under "Imperialism." In the absence of an alphabetical author list, it is of course impossible to follow the works of any one author through the index. The decision of the editors to attach to each topic a brief description or explanation, whether necessary or not, is amazing. Who that will ever use the book needs to have agriculture, banks, almanacs, or undertakers defined for him, or be told that Massachusetts is "an original N. E. State of the United States," and New York the "metropolis and chief port of America, on New York Bay"? The critical estimates accompanying the principal entries are generally well chosen, but of course highly condensed in presentation. No attempt seems to have been made to list important United States documents as a whole, and State publications seem also to have been as a rule excluded. There is a list of important "periodicals and transactions" (pp. 165-168), with in each case the number of the published volume for the year, but there is no index of contents save as the contents are distributed through the subject classification. We have not searched the book for errors or omissions, but we note that Miss Kimball's 'Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island' is twice entered, pp. 184 and 185, with different descriptive data in each case, and that the Christian name of Nathanael Greene is misspelled (p. 85). On the whole, we must repeat that we are glad to have the book, and that it will unquestionably prove of great usefulness, but we wish its scope had been more comprehensive and its execution more scholarly.

—Senate Document 74, Fifty-seventh Congress, second session, consisted of two volumes, which together comprise by far the best and most complete bibliography of the Philippine Islands in existence. The standard works hitherto, in fact the only works worthy the name of Philippine bibliogra-

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phy, have been the rather scattered lists which W. E. Retana has issued in the form of a catalogue of his own library of Philippina, and in connection with his republication of old Philippine sources, and the somewhat more systematic bibliography of J. T. Medina, a Chilean, printed in 1897. Both these compilers worked in Spanish. Besides the incompleteness of Retana's work, everything he did is tinged with a bitter anti-Filipino and pro-friar bias; Medina is more scholarly and on the whole more reliable, but his work, begun in connection with Mexican bibliography, is incomplete, comprising 667 numbers. The first part of the Senate document mentioned above, which is composed of a list of books and maps on the Philippine Islands, to be found in the Library of Congress, approximates 1,500 titles up to 1898, aside from the books, Congressional and other public documents, and articles in periodicals issued since then. The second part of the work, which has also just been issued separately by the Library of Congress, consists of a Philippine bibliography by Dr. T. H. Pardo de Tavera of Manila, who is now one of the Filipino members of the Philippine Commission. His father was one of the deportees in connection with the revolt of 1872, and the son lived with his mother for some years in Paris, studying there and elsewhere on the Continent, not only in his profession of medicine, but also in Oriental and especially Malay languages, and in everything pertaining to the Philippines. He is a member of various learned societies of France and Spain, and, the past having been forgotten, was recognized with certain royal orders by the court of Spain, and, being of nearly pure Spanish blood, was quite generally identified as a Spaniard before the insurrection of 1898. He preferred, however, after the fall of Spanish sovereignty, to identify himself with the Filipinos, and has been almost from the first one of the most consistent and prominent of the "Americanistas" in the archipelago. He will visit this country shortly, along with the Filipino commissioners to the St. Louis Exposition. He possesses in Manila what is undoubtedly the largest private library of Philippina in existence, with the exception of that of Señor Retana, which numbers, or once numbered, 2,697 titles, including manuscripts.

—In preparing this bibliography, which is entitled 'Biblioteca Filipina,' and is printed in the Spanish just as the manuscript was sent by Dr. Tavera and placed at the disposal of the Librarian of Congress in 1901, he has used as a basis his own library, supplementing it with the works of Medina and Retana, and with notes taken from the old works in his possession, or made in the libraries and archives of London, Paris, Madrid, Seville, and Manila (he having had some access to the friar archives in the latter city until he became identified with the United States). His work comprises 2,850 titles, though, under the system adopted, there is some duplication. The system adopted is, as a matter of fact, hardly a system at all, being merely alphabetical, with some cross-references, and with practically nothing like the subject-classification which the modern bibliographer considers essential. In this respect the Library of Congress bibliography prepared by Mr. Griffin, the able bibliographer of that institution, will serve as a valuable check upon the work of Tavera. Perhaps the chief value of the latter work consists in the comments made by the compiler upon all works of importance, or works which incurred his disapprobation or sarcasm. It is here that his semi-Spanish education asserts itself, in spite of the fact that he rejects his Spanish connections; and the inexpert reader needs to be warned that the studious doctor's comments are not always unprejudiced. They are, however, always spicy, and will not detract from the interest of the work nor from its value for consultation, even if some of the remarks would be placed under the ban in any German, English, or American work of the sort. His biographical notices are also of value, though one detects errors, and occasionally the bibliographer of the Library of Congress has inserted possible corrections in brackets. Doubtless there was some difficulty in working with the Spanish manuscript of Dr. Tavera, but the many and repeated errors in spelling, accentuation, and of a more serious sort are not creditable to the Government Printing-Office. Surely, any sort of proofreading should have prevented the exchange of entire words for others which mean something else or nothing at all in Spanish.

—The 'Clarence King Memoirs,' published for the Century Association of this city by G. P. Putnam's Sons, is a less satisfying monument than would be the work of a single hand. Consisting of the contributions of many friends, written only in part expressly for the present occasion, it necessarily offers some repetitions along with much diversity of style and power of appreciation. It is, however, altogether readable, with at least a borrowed lightness; and while all the main biographical facts are recorded, there is an illuminating display of the facets of a many-sided and brilliant character. The man is rather more in evidence than the geologist, but Mr. King's rank in this capacity is weighed by his associate, Mr. S. F. Emmons. Another, Mr. J. D. Hague, contributes a long gloss on King's tale, "The Helmet of Mambrino," with which the volume opens, exhibiting the whimsical personality of the "Don Horacio" of that humor. Mr. Hague also concludes with some choice Memorabilia. Other contributors are Messrs. John Hay, W. D. Howells, Henry Adams, John La Farge, Edmund C. Stedman, W. C. Brownell, Edward Cary, D. C. Gilman, and Rossiter W. Raymond—a notable company. There are several portraits of King, whose charm was, after all, incommunicable. One of his artistic jests was in reply to Ruskin's offering him his choice of Turner's two greatest water-colors—"One good Turner deserves another"—and he got both. With a like generosity he gave a Fortuny to Mr. Howells. Among his adventures in the field was one with a grizzly in his cave in the manner of General Putnam with his wolf. Another was his receiving from a mother unable to board the train in crossing the Isthmus of Panama, a baby, which he had to farm out to a colored woman between trains. The sequel is a ghost story, and the restoration to this nurse of her runaway son, who had drifted into Mr. King's employ.

—Adam & Charles Black, London (New York: Macmillan), publish 'The Life of Jesus,' by Dr. Oscar Holtzmann, in a translation made by J. T. Bealby, B. A., and Maurice A. Canney, M. A. That the translation is approved by Dr. Holtzmann is not, perhaps, its best possible recommendation, but the book reads quite as if it had been written in English in an agreeable style. It is a big octavo of 542 pages, but compactly written as compared with Keim's elaboration of the subject in six volumes. The author must be distinguished from his relative, H. J. Holtzmann, a scholar of much greater reputation. His book was published in Germany in 1901, and was received with a degree of favor that makes its translation into English a natural event. Its place is very distinctly with the more liberal biographies of Jesus, and, as distinctly, not with the most radical. Its dealing with the sources of our knowledge of Jesus is far less discouraging than the criticism of Professor Schmiedel of Zurich, who is much in favor with the editors of the 'Encyclopædia Biblica.' A striking feature is the liberal use made of the Gospel of the Hebrews, which is put on a level with the Synoptics and much higher than the Fourth Gospel, which is severely depreciated both as to the discourses attributed to Jesus and the order of events, though some genuine elements of tradition are conceded to it. There is much chronological particularity in Dr. Holtzmann's presentation, which is the more convincing because he finds it easy to accept uncertainty where that seems inevitable. Thus, for the birth of Jesus he attempts no greater exactness than this: "His birth took place (let us say) some time in the last decade (14-4 B. C.) of the reign of Herod I." The birth-stories of Matthew and Luke are utterly discredited. "Jesus was born at Nazareth in Galilee, being the eldest of a family of five brothers and several sisters, and there he grew up." In general the miracles of Jesus are treated in a highly naturalistic manner; their credibility in some cases being based on modern psychical phenomena of doubtful character. The resurrection of Jesus is minimized as a subjective experience in the minds of excited men and women. The tendency of recent criticism is certainly to the denial of any "Messianic consciousness" in Jesus. At this point Dr. Holtzmann is reactionary, dating such consciousness from the baptism of Jesus and a visionary experience.

PAUL'S MODERN ENGLAND.

A History of Modern England. By Herbert Paul. In five volumes. Vols. I. and II. (1845 to 1865). The Macmillan Co. 1904.

The writer of contemporary history, or of history so recent as to be virtually contemporary, is exposed to three difficulties. The materials at his disposal are and must be insufficient to explain many of the events he has to describe, because some of the most important—those which reveal the secret motives of the men whose action determined the course of events—have not yet been given to the world. Any one who watches with intelligence what passes under his own eyes, knows that the record in the newspapers of the doings and words of men is very far from explaining the real significance of those doings and words. Whoever has a personal familiarity with the individuals that figure in political life, knows that the popular impression of their character is frequently quite erroneous, and

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many years may elapse before the data necessary for judging them correctly are disclosed. A second and not less obvious difficulty is the political or personal bias which affects a writer when he discusses events still within the sphere of party controversy. Even the annals of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are viewed with different eyes by a Roman Catholic and by a Protestant historian in Europe. Even the events of the days of Andrew Jackson are seen with different eyes by a citizen of Massachusetts and a citizen of South Carolina. Much more, then, must an Englishman be exposed to the influences of party feeling when he describes the strife of Whig and Tory in the days of Mr. Disraeli and Lord John Russell. The third difficulty is still graver. Events take a long time to fall into their true historical perspective. Some which, not only at the time when they happen, but for a good while afterwards, appear to be of the first importance, are subsequently reduced to much smaller proportions. Others, little noticed at the moment, are afterwards perceived to have been of great significance. An act of policy which at the moment seemed wise, or at any rate necessary, may be condemned by results which are not fully revealed for many a long year. Another act, generally censured at the time, may be justified by its ultimate fruits. To take two obvious instances: the hour has not yet arrived at which a final judgment can be passed upon the grant of suffrage to the colored people of the South in 1870, or upon Mr. Gladstone's Home Rule bill of 1886. There is no event recorded in these volumes about which people are now more generally agreed than that the Crimean war of 1853-55 was a blunder, but it was not till thirty years later that this was recognized.

Nevertheless, patent as these difficulties are, recent history has got to be written; and some of the greatest books of history the world possesses have been written by men practically contemporary with the events they described. They are, indeed, the most interesting books, because they convey the very life and color of the time. Thucydides, Tacitus (in his 'Histories'), Procopius, Matthew Paris, Philip of Commines, Clarendon, Burnet, are familiar instances. Mr. Paul, who is well known in England as a practised and brilliant writer, and who was for some time a member of the British House of Commons, knows the difficulties. Let us see how he grapples with them.

As respects the use of unpublished materials, it is not easy to form an opinion, for he seldom quotes his authorities, and he may have made a greater use of oral tradition or of letters and diaries still in manuscript than the reader is told. The scale of his book, which covers twenty years in less than 800 pages, does not permit the minute discussion of the underlying motives of the chief actors. This much may be said, that in reading it we have not found any statement which a fuller knowledge of unpublished sources seems likely to refute or materially to modify. More data will, of course, be available to later writers, but Mr. Paul seems to have used well the data already possessed. Nor as respects personal bias is any serious complaint to be made. It is indeed easy to discover Mr. Paul's own views. He is in politics a decided Liberal, and in ecclesiastical matters what is called in England a pronounced Broad Churchman. A man of more conservative views, whether in State or in Church questions, would no doubt write differently. But he is not unfair; that is to say, he desires to do justice to those with whom he differs, and is willing, on proper occasions, to blame the conduct of Liberal statesmen. Perhaps, however, it would have been well if he had from time to time paused to set forth rather more fully the views and what may be called the general mental and moral attitude of the Conservative or Tory party. Indeed, there is not in these volumes quite enough of an analysis or picture of the phases of English opinion. Attention is concentrated on the men; but the environment of doctrine and sentiment which influenced them and which has varied a good deal from time to time, even within the boundaries of the two great historical parties, ought to be brought home to the reader—and this especially for the sake of the reader who lives outside England. Such a criticism, however, touches the author's method, and not his fairness. He is not a partisan, though the vigor and decision with which he expresses his own judgments would hardly be within the reach of a writer whose adhesion to one party and one set of views was less definite and less unhesitating.

When we come to that greatest difficulty which is due to the fact that the events narrated are still too near to us to have fallen into their due perspective, we must admit it to be a difficulty which no skill or knowledge can overcome. It is less serious in these two volumes, treating of matters now forty years behind, than it will become when Mr. Paul brings his story down to the eighties or the nineties. Fond as he evidently is of Parliamentary struggles, he judiciously relegates questions of mere party tactics to a second place, and describes only those few debates which, by the gravity of their results or some dramatic incident, deserve to be remembered. Nothing is drearier than the wrangling or manœuvring that goes on in a legislature when one examines it after the lapse of a few years. We do not always agree with Mr. Paul's estimate of the relative importance of men or of occurrences; but only posterity can decide whether he is right or whether we are. He understands English politics as only one who has himself mixed in the life of the House of Commons can understand them, and he understands England as only an Englishman, or an American who has lived in England, can understand that singular country. It may be doubted if any Frenchman, however acute, any German, however learned and painstaking, has really grasped the spirit of English public life. Mr. Paul is thoroughly at home in it; and nothing contributes more to the force and freshness with which he writes than his own evident enjoyment of the subject. With foreign affairs, such as those of Hungary in 1849, and of Italy in 1859, he is less familiar, but these were not of prime importance to the England of those days.

In one respect historical perspective does suffer in this book. Mr. Paul, in his laudable desire to make his narrative clear and easy to follow, sticks almost too close to a chronological order. He tells occurrences as they happened, even when a grouping according to subjects would make the causal relations plainer. Ecclesiastical matters, for instance, might well be treated in one or two, or perhaps three, separate chapters, instead of being interposed among political matters with which they have seldom much direct connection. The same remark applies to the notices, always bright and pointed, of the appearance in the field of literature of striking books or notable men. Sometimes, too, a subject is introduced with an insufficient preliminary explanation. The reader is launched into the Crimean war by an admirable account of the steps by which the British ministry blundered, and were helped by the nation to blunder, into that conflict; but there is not a word to indicate the previous relations of England to the Turkish Empire—a matter which largely determined the English attitude. So it would help most Englishmen and nearly all American readers if some slight sketch of the origin and earlier phases of the so-called "Tractarian" or "Oxford" movement were prefixed to the account of the ecclesiastical controversies described in these volumes.

Accuracy is the foundation, though only the foundation, of all excellence in a history, and in this respect no serious complaint is to be made against Mr. Paul. Such errors of fact as we have noted are too few and too trivial to be worth mentioning here, with one exception. At the end of a chapter on 1847 (i., p. 156), he intimates that other anæsthetics had no employment beyond dentistry till Simpson proposed chloroform. Capital operations of the utmost delicacy were performed in America under ether, if not in Europe too, months before Simpson proposed a different vapor. But Mr. Paul is apt to be rather bold and sweeping in his statements and his judgments. For instance, to say that "Carlyle did not think" (i., p. 221), that English law in 1854 was "a barbarous system," that "the immense majority of the clergy of the Church of England were with Dr. Pusey before he died" in 1882 (ii., p. 38), that "Russia in Herat meant Russia in India" (ii., p. 65), that Cavour was "the founder of the Liberal party on the Continent" (ii., p. 193)—is to say what would be quite true and worth saying in a qualified and guarded form, but is by no means true to the extent of our author's words. Sir George Grey (Governor of the Cape and of New Zealand) was an able man, but to call him "the prince of colonial Governors" is to go far beyond what the record of his life justifies. There may be those who will think that the same tendency to overstatement appears in the literary and political judgments which Mr. Paul passes. These, however, are matters of individual taste, and are understood so to be. He is free to value Matthew Arnold's poems and Herbert Spencer's philosophy more highly than some critics do, and to think Louis Napoleon more of a mere rascal than some historians take him to have been. We are disposed to agree with these critics and historians rather than with Mr. Paul. But in these and other such cases it is well to have an author's judgment frankly and broadly stated; and there can be no doubt that the book is all the more readable because it sometimes startles, and sometimes excites dissent, even in matters where no question of political attitude arises.

Readable it unquestionably is. It is full of force and swing from the first page to the last, never flagging in the movement of the

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tale. It is also perfectly clear, save that here and there we find allusions which not all British and perhaps few non-British readers will follow. Nobody but a lawyer knows the name of Meeson and Welsby's Reports; many Americans will fail to catch the point of the expression "within two hours of Folkestone" (ii., p. 288). The narrative is singularly concise, telling what has to be told in the fewest possible words. This power of compression, and the judgment with which the more important events are selected for notice out of the vast multitude of details that might have been given, constitute one of the highest merits of the book, yet a merit which might escape the hasty reader who does not know that, in the profusion of materials available to the historian of our time, lies one of his greatest perplexities. Such a power goes happily with the remarkable gift for epigram which Mr. Paul possesses, and which he abuses as little as can be expected from any one who has the good fortune to be so endowed. The narrative of the Crimean war and that of the Indian Mutiny are good instances of Mr. Paul's power of telling a story clearly and effectively. Both narratives are brief, considering the length of time they cover and the magnitude of the events. But they have none of the dryness which brevity involves in unskilful hands. The description of the battle of Balaklava is particularly well done.

These volumes cover the period during which the War of Secession raged in America, and contain a good many references to that long struggle. Though it did not directly affect the course of events in England, it excited more interest there, and gave rise to more heated discussions at every dinner-table, than did any question of contemporary English politics. Mr. Paul hardly brings out with sufficient fulness and clearness the curious phases through which English opinion passed, and which even at this distance of time Englishmen ought to understand that they may learn to estimate their own wisdom more modestly, and Americans ought to understand that they may judge the English charitably. It may be added, in passing, that Mr. Paul does not quite appreciate the technical side of the case for the Secessionists. Sympathy with those who were fighting in the interests of freedom and humanity, and also (as every one now admits) in the interests of the American Republic, need not exclude a recognition of the legal grounds on which honest and patriotic men in the South based, however unhappily for themselves, their action in trying to break up the Union.

The period we have referred to was a critical and determinative period for the United States, ushering in a new development, in which new issues and problems came to the front. For Great Britain, however, it was a time of internal tranquillity and of a movement slow and gentle compared with that which had gone on between 1829 and 1846, or that which was to go on between 1868 and 1887. The questions debated in Parliament were seldom fundamental questions. No considerable change was made in the Constitution of Britain, and only one important change in her relation to her dependencies—the bringing of India under the direct rule of the Crown. Even that was a change rather in form than in substance, less important than the granting of self-governing institutions to the British colonies in Australasia and South Africa, which proceeded quietly and unobtrusively from 1855 onwards. Whoever will compare the political arrangements of Britain now with those which prevailed in 1865, and, still more, whoever will compare British opinion as it is now with the opinion and the ideas which prevailed in the State and in the Church in that year, will be astonished at the changes which forty years have brought about. There was practically no Socialism in England in 1865. The so-called upper class, still largely the landed class, conducted the Government of the country, and were alone (with few exceptions) to be found in Parliament, while legislation was framed to suit partly their interests, partly those of the middle classes. Birth was still valued; peace and administrative economy stood highest among the national ideals. There was so little desire to extend the dominions of Britain that three relinquishments of territory—those of the Ionian Islands, of the Transvaal territory, and of the Orange River territory—passed unopposed and almost unnoticed. The progress of change began to be swift after Lord Palmerston's death in 1865 and Mr. Gladstone's subsequent succession to him in leadership, and Mr. Paul has an interesting task before him in tracing that progress down to the end of the nineteenth century.

Edward Bowen: A Memoir. By the Rev. the Hon. W. E. Bowen. Longmans, Green, & Co.

The English Public Schools are without a parallel in any other country. Their number, their wealth, the richness of their traditions, the long lists of cultivated men among their teachers, the hold which they have upon the aristocracy and upper middle class from which their pupils come, are all noteworthy. At the present time, the number of new boarding schools which have been founded in our country in open imitation of English models, and the influence and success which some of these schools have attained, render both interesting and practical the study of English Public School life. And here we have before us the memoir of a very brilliant man who with entire devotion identified himself for forty-two years with Harrow. His period of service was from 1859 to 1901. The most famous head-masters with whom he served were C. J. Vaughn and H. M. Butler. Vaughn was virtually a new creator of Harrow, which grew in his administration from 69 to 469 pupils. This fact shows us to what fluctuations of prosperity the Public Schools are exposed. Bowen came to Harrow after a brilliant career at King's College, London, and Trinity College, Cambridge. He had gained distinction as classical scholar, as English essayist, debater, athlete, and poet. He had been at Harrow only fifteen months when Vaughn resigned the headmastership to accept the post of Master of the Temple. In H. M. Butler, Harrow secured, as Vaughn's successor, a man of hardly inferior abilities. Butler had been Bowen's teacher at Trinity, and had learned, even then, to expect much of him. It is an interesting indication of the estimation in which Bowen was held, before he had long been at Harrow, that when, in 1863, B. F. Westcott resigned his assistant mastership, to Bowen was assigned the care of his house.

Bowen sympathized strongly with the demand for a modern, or English, side at Harrow, and to him was intrusted the organization and general direction of such a modern side. He held this responsibility from 1869 to 1893, and much of his writing on educational subjects was occasioned by the position which he filled. The experiment was undertaken under favorable conditions; and the determination was resolute, from the outset, that the standards of work on the English, or modern, side should be in no respect inferior to those on the classical side.

One rarely meets with stronger expressions of love and admiration than abound in this biography. Not only is the biographer, who is Mr. Bowen's nephew, an enthusiastic admirer of his uncle, but many others testify, in no qualified terms, to the personal charm, we may almost say to the spell, which he exerted upon the members of his house. Bowen was a man of genius, and what wonder that boys admired one who was at once athlete, poet, historian, man of affairs (for he once stood for Parliament in a stubborn contest against A. J. Balfour, the present head of the English Government)! That contact with him was inspiring, we cannot doubt. But he was essentially a radical, and he had marked singularities. The reader may well doubt whether he was a natural organizer, and whether he displayed that constructive talent in which great headmasters like Arnold and Vaughn have been eminent. English schools have taken so prominent a place and have gained so great an influence because they have succeeded in attracting to their service and direction men of real statesmanlike ability. Bowen was perhaps critical rather than constructive, and it is difficult to decide how important was his contribution in adapting education to the needs of modern life. Perhaps the breadth of his interests made it hard for him to devote himself with success to school organization.

Among the interesting essays which are collected at the close of the memoir, is one contributed by him in 1867 to F. W. Farrar's 'Essays on Liberal Education,' and entitled "Teaching by Means of Grammar." It is a brilliant attack on the misuse of grammar. The writer sets up as the common pleas for the prominence of the study of grammar in English schools the following considerations: (1) that grammar is useful as a means of teaching language; (2) that the study of grammar is a valuable moral discipline; (3) that the study of grammar is valuable for its own sake. He finds it easy to overthrow the positions, as he himself states them, of the advocates of grammar. The essay is of importance, not only because of its brilliancy, but also as showing how the point of view from which grammar is regarded has changed since 1867. The inference, however, that formal grammar has hardly any place in the secondary school is too sweeping. To require English schoolboys to learn their grammar in Latin, and to describe the little known by what was still more unknown, was indeed a folly which deserves any amount of ridicule. But it is not fair to deny the value of a moderate number of clear and concise statements of the facts of language, both as to syntax and as to form; or to

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censure those who insist that the pupil shall both understand and remember these statements.

A splendid service which Bowen rendered Harrow remains in the long list of songs which he wrote for the school. Mr. John Farmer, the gifted school organist of that day, set most of these songs to music, sometimes within a few hours from the time when they were written. The singing of them in the Common Room of the school was a great feature of Harrow life. A vivid picture in the memoir depicts Gladstone, already in his eighties, on a visit to the ancient school, with the greatest delight joining with masters and boys in singing Bowen's songs. A friend of the writer in this country, who knows intimately the English schools, corroborates the immense value to Harrow of these songs.

Another important service was Bowen's occasional talks or lectures to the school. He lectured on astronomy; and he had a series of talks on modern battlefields of Europe, which are described as most interesting. He had personally explored these fields, and his talks were illustrated by maps of his own preparation.

Bowen shared the English gentleman's passion for athletics. Among his feats was that of walking from Cambridge to Oxford in twenty-six consecutive hours. He refused to recognize the limitations of age, but played football with nearly the same spirit and force at sixty as at thirty. The end of his life came from heart failure, while on a bicycle tour in France during the Easter holidays of 1901. He was with his intimate friends, Mr. James Bryce and Mrs. Bryce. They had just walked up a rather long hill, and he was putting his foot on the bicycle step to continue the journey when, like a flash, the end came.

Our American schools organized on English models have failed to parallel one important feature of their prototypes, viz., to secure a considerable number of cultivated and able men who cooperate with the head master in giving character to the school and in guiding the development of the boys. With us, there is a tendency to think of the school as depending mainly upon the personality of the head master. No doubt, a certain autocratic character is essential in administration, here as there. But it is very desirable that eminent gifts of scholarship and character should abound in assistant masters. Only then can the intellectual activity of the school, which is always in danger of stagnation, be sustained. Then only can the life of the school possess the breadth and variety which are essential in a place where boys are expected to spend from six to nine years. Then only can the permanent existence of the school be assured. In England, the sub-master derives from the fees which come from the boys of his house a comparatively liberal income. This income tempts and induces many men of first-rate ability to accept these places as their life-calling. Our schools which most nearly reproduce English public schools have not, as a rule, thought it best to reproduce the numerous houses, each presided over by an assistant master with considerable independent responsibility and corresponding pecuniary gain. How, then, shall the men of high gifts be secured? Salaries must apparently be raised, and every possible means must be employed to render these places attractive. Upon securing and retaining, in each large boarding school, a considerable number of men distinguished for character, scholarship, and personal attractiveness, the future of our schools depends.

The Neighbor: The Natural History of Human Contacts. By N. S. Shaler. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1904.

There is a fascination in these observations concerning matters and things in general which Professor Shaler is now publishing; a fascination not easy to explain. Many of his sayings suggest Holmes's lines on the Katydid. Propositions that are axiomatic with schoolboys are advanced in as solemn a way as if they were important discoveries, and not a ray of humor enlivens the all-pervading seriousness. On the other hand, propositions explosive as bombshells are tossed out with no intimation that any one has ever controverted them, or that it would make any difference if any one ever had. Most of his conclusions, Professor Shaler informs us, are derived from his personal observations, and he takes it for granted that no further proof is necessary. When he has not been able to observe, he has asked his friends to favor him with their impressions, and their testimony is accepted as decisive. From some points of view results so obtained are satisfactory; yet the process savors a little too much of infallibility. Authority is a convenient refuge, but science is not content with it.

Take, for instance, the assertion that it is at present better for the American negro not to acquire the ownership of land, but to hold it as a tenant under a white landlord. Many books have been written concerning the diverse forms of land tenure, and the advantages and disadvantages of peasant proprietorship have been the subject of much controversy. Professor Shaler settles the matter in five lines. Comparing the métayer system of northern Italy with the system of proprietorship generally prevailing in France, he remarks: "From personal observation of these tenant farmers in Tuscany, I am satisfied that the method is on the whole better for them and for the land than the French system, where the laborer owns the ground he tills." On so intricate a subject as this, with numberless causes at work for ages, the personal observation of even a very intelligent man cannot be accepted as conclusive.

Why do we continue to read an author whose statements frequently amaze and exasperate us? Partly because of the reasoned benevolence which pervades all his opinions and recommendations. His desire to promote kindly relations between all men, of whatever race or color, is constantly manifest, and it is impossible not to be moved by it. There is withal a certain pleasure in having pointed out to us the traits which we derive from our simian ancestors, and the similarity between our instincts and those of animals in general. Do we start at the sudden sight of some uncouth fellow-creature? So does a horse start at an automobile. Everything to which we are unused is at first alarming; this is the law throughout the animal world. During his prolonged continuance in the tribal state, man learned to dread and to hate whatever was outside of his little circle. Every stranger was an enemy, and even the most civilized men feel at first sight an instinctive aversion to a foreigner. At best we are on our guard; we are suspicious of this outlandish man, who may, for all we know, mean to do us harm. To have these mysterious impulses traced to their remote sources, to learn how our emotions have been developed out of those which we observe in the lower animals, and to be taught how pestilent the emotion of hatred has become in the modern world—all this is grateful to the ordinary reader. He feels that he is a part of "one stupendous whole," that, as a man, nothing human is alien to him.

The particular task undertaken in this book is to explain the antipathy of people of Aryan stock to Jews and negroes. As to the Jews, Professor Shaler finds that they are clearly the ablest folk the world has ever known. They are "of abiding moral quality"; they are very humane. "When we meet our neighbor in a Jew, the chance is that he is an able, trustworthy man." There is nothing in the physical aspect of Jews to account for our instinctive dislike; their countenances are more prevailingly intellectual, and kindlier, than our own. The only discoverable ground for our antipathy, apart from the survival of tribe hatred, is the existence of too much responsiveness to our advances, and a disposition to seek immediate profit on unsuitable occasions. This does not appear to be a very satisfactory explanation of the phenomena, but perhaps it is the best now attainable.

The study of our relations with the negroes is much more thorough. Here the physical differences are enough to bring out racial antipathy; but "the instinctive dislike to the negro disappears much more quickly than the prejudice against other races less remote in quality of body from ourselves." The author declares that he has never known an instance in which it persisted, provided the contacts were intimate. The negroes are affectionate and faithful; they have a disposition which is perhaps more cheerful, more kindly, than that of any other race. They were uplifted from their benighted state in Africa by slavery; their enslavement here christianized them; "they were cared for by their masters, especially by the women, with an admirable devotion for their moral welfare." So far as morals in general are concerned, Professor Shaler holds the negroes to be equal to whites of like station.

The explanation of our hatred of the negro appears to be found in his political incapacity. Professor Shaler is satisfied that he is by nature incapable, as a species, of creating or maintaining societies of an order above barbarism; and this incapacity is irremediable. It existed in Africa, it has been displayed in Hayti, and it appeared in the days when the carpet-baggers ruled the South. Nevertheless, Professor Shaler thinks a considerable part of the black people will be found very well fitted for the more serious duties of citizenship. Not more than 5 per cent are hopelessly savage.

There is a good deal of the old "cursed be Canaan" twang to this, and we do not need to say that Professor Shaler's assertions will be disputed. Be this as it may, we must commend the manner in which he calls knowledge to the aid of righteous-

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ness, and shows how reason may triumph over the "primal impulses." Even if we study our fellow-creatures from scientific curiosity, we find our sympathies aroused, and learn to admire what at first repelled us. The science of mankind thus attains a wider meaning. "Whoever would act rationally in his dealings with his fellows, whoever would bring into those relations the best help that knowledge can give, must first of all take with him love. If he does that he is in the way of light; if he fails so to do, he is in the way of darkness."

Problems and Persons. By Wilfrid Philip Ward, author of 'William George Ward and the Oxford Movement,' etc., etc. Longmans, Green & Co. 1903.

Mr. Ward has brought together in this volume eleven articles, three of which have not until now been published under his own name; one other is entirely new, namely, the "The Life-Work of Cardinal Wiseman." It is the least important of the series for those who have read Mr. Ward's 'Life and Times of Cardinal Wiseman,' being a presentation in brief of the main contentions of that book, so favorable to Cardinal Wiseman's relations to the modern spirit and English secularity in comparison with Cardinal Manning's. But Mr. Ward's judgments of Cardinal Manning are without severity. Indeed, one of these articles, the fifth, "Candor in Biography," is an appeal from the harshness of the Purcell biography of Manning, not so much impugning its accuracy in particulars, as questioning the proportions of its praise and blame. The article is well worth considering, especially as showing the almost inevitable tendency of the reviewer of such a book as Purcell's to overemphasize the adverse particulars, and so create in the community a worse impression than that made by the book. But the demurrer which this article puts in, leaves Mr. Ward strongly in favor of the Newman, as against the Manning, tradition of English Catholicism; the entire structure of his opinion as to the present and future standing of Roman Catholicism being founded on the ideas of Newman presented in his 'Development of Christian Doctrine,' the book which he wrote as an Anglican and published as a Roman Catholic—the bridge by which he made his intellectual passage from the one church to the other.

The articles included in this volume have at least three degrees of popular interest, if we should not say one degree of popular interest and two removed from this. The general reader will be most drawn to the articles on Tennyson and Huxley; next to the other personal articles on Mrs. Augustus Craven, Cardinal Wiseman, and Newman and Renan, who are bracketed in the ninth article. The remaining articles appeal to a much narrower circle of readers, yet, coming to their own, they will appear, and justly, to be of much more importance than the rest, and will have a corresponding fascination. The value of the article on Tennyson resides mainly in its character as a record of first-hand impressions made upon a mind exceptionally impressional and intelligent. We have had reminiscences of Tennyson before now remarkable for their triviality—those of Mr. G. W. Smalley, for example, far less significant of Tennyson than of the interloping interviewer. Doubtless there was food for laughter in some of the situations created by obsequious admiration; Sir Leslie Stephen confessed as much in one of his later articles. But in Mr. Ward's "Tennyson" we have an approach at once reverent and critical, with some valuable corrections of things generally misconceived. The emphasis is on the laureate's "intense candor and truthfulness." He had to a preëminent degree that humility and sensitiveness which Bacon described as indispensable to the student of nature. Equally to the poet, Tennyson would have said. A certain literal truthfulness and scrupulosity was an amusing trait. He would spoil a good story by repeated interruptions reminding the speaker of the exact particulars of what he conceived to be its proper form. Having written "two-and-thirty years ago" in a poem, and afterward discovered that only thirty-one years had elapsed, he could hardly be persuaded to refrain from changing the line. The extent of his knowledge will be a surprise to many readers. Macaulay's ability to name the Lord Chancellors in their order of succession pales in the light of Tennyson's acquaintance with the Buddhist sects and the dates and circumstances of their origin. Could he also venture on the list of Popes without fear of being slaughtered by the Leos or among the Innocents? His knowledge of stellar and planetary distances and movements was extremely accurate. His "Vastness" reported his habitual sense of the world's awful magnitudes. There were ideal anticipations of evolutionary principles in "In Memoriam" that made Darwin's doctrine of the descent of man attractive to him as explaining man's dual nature.

Even more interesting than the article on Tennyson is that on Huxley. Many sturdy Protestants would hardly conceive it possible that a Roman Catholic could write of such a heretic as Huxley with so much sympathy and admiration. This article certainly is less Roman than catholic. its main direction being towards the opinion that Huxley was fundamentally serious and reverent in his attitude towards religious questions, and more religious than unbelieving in his inmost mind. Particularly noticeable is his just indignation excited by Balfour's 'Foundations of Belief.' "Balfour," he said, "has gone to war without ordnance maps, like the French in 1870. He does not know the position of his enemy, and attacks me for what I don't hold. No one holds what Balfour describes as 'Naturalism.'" An ecclesiastical friend met him in York minster: "You did not expect to see me here?" said Huxley. "Yes," said his friend, "but on the pinnacle." He enjoyed the joke, as he did always a retort of this kind and any perfectly frank opposition; as when Mr. Ward's father told him at the Metaphysical Society that his degree of error was unpardonable from the Roman Catholic point of view. "My dear Dr. Ward," said Huxley, "if you don't mind, I don't." Huxley's liking for Dean Stanley was immense, but he thought him a victim of "the topographical fallacy." To see a place was for him to believe what was told as happening there. He had been in Palestine, and hence believed the patriarchal legends to be true; but he did not accept the cosmology of Genesis, because he was not present at the creation of the world. The article on Newman and Renan calls attention to the almost exact coincidence of Newman's becoming a Roman priest and Renan's ceasing to be one for ever. The two events were only two days apart—Newman's submission, October 8, 1845; Renan's rejection October 6. Mr. Ward's treatment of Renan is characterized by a remarkable geniality, but he comes round to the conclusion that Renan found Roman Catholicism impossible because he was not a Christian.

This article, with four others, "The Time Spirit of the Nineteenth Century," "The Rigidity of Rome," "Unchanging Dogma and Changeful Man," and Balfour's "Foundations of Belief," are so many phases of a line of argument which is Mr. Ward's personal contribution to the problem of the position of Roman Catholicism in the modern world. The old idea of fixity is parted with, while the claim is made that "there are central religious ideas reappearing in a more and more purified form under the influence of exacter knowledge and of the criticisms of the intellect and moral sense." Here is a method which in course of time might make the theology of Rome that of Phillips Brooks or Dr. Channing or more radical thinkers. Mr. Ward's first and longest article takes a wide sweep and abounds in brilliant generalizations. He accepts the idea of evolution as "the new framework" of thought, and expects from it something of that composure and dignity which formerly proceeded from the unity of Christendom as embodied in the Roman Church. The results of modern Biblical criticism are accepted quite as cordially as the principle of evolution. There is room for doubt whether William George Ward, "Ideal Ward," the present writer's father, who egged Newman on to the dangerous positions of "Tract 90," would be quite happy if he should revisit the scene of his intellectual vicissitudes and find his son writing in this manner.

Greek Votive Offerings. By William Henry Denham Rouse, A.M. Cambridge (Eng.) University Press; New York: Macmillan.

This is a work—almost a pioneer in its branch—of great research and erudition, presenting an enormous mass of facts, with all the completeness attainable considering that the facts are constantly accumulating. The arrangement of such a mass of material presents, naturally, great difficulty, especially since it is not easy to discover any stable principles of classification, and since the theories which have been hitherto assumed have vanished as the author tried to collect evidence for them. If his research leads to any general conclusion, it is to a "conviction of the sincerity and simplicity of Greek religion in the great age, and the elements of corruption which finally brought it to naught." By the last statement he means that about the fourth century B. C. the votive offering begins to lose its sincerity, and is given as a "means of self-glorification," as a memorial of the donor's virtues or exploits. A fixed date in such matters must, obviously, be taken with many allowances. The motive of many a donor in earlier times may have been mixed and selfish, and in later times may have continued pure. In the case of votive offerings for re-

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covery from sickness or escape from peril and accident the author recognizes this fact; and the chapter which he devotes to this subject is a most striking illustration of the absolute permanence of motive and custom in this superstition, and of the identity of its manifestation in ancient and modern times. Not merely do the official miracles of the temple of Æsculapius at Epidaurus resemble those of Our Lady of Lourdes, but the small local chapels in Greece which continue to work marvels of healing and saving in the present day are in some instances the direct heirs of local shrines which have persisted on the same spot since the classic period. They contain the very same heterogeneous collection of boats, cradles, legs, arms, hearts, and eyes which are reported in the inventories of ancient shrines. The chattering pair of women whom Herodas describes as surveying the curiosities of the temple of Æsculapius at Cos would be very much at home in the sanctuary of the Virgin at Tenos, or at Ayassos in Lesbos, though they would doubtless be puzzled by the model of a paddle-steamer or of a manufactory with a smoking chimney.

When Mr. Rouse fixes the beginning of memorial dedication in the ninth or tenth century, this again is a date which must not be pressed. He bases his inference on the evidence of Homer and Hesiod. In Homer the practice seems to be beginning, and the technical term for a votive offering not to be quite fixed; in Hesiod the formula is fully recognized. Homer is a slippery witness, for he holds his tongue, for reasons of his own, about a good many things which he knew perfectly well. Statues, for instance, as M. Bréal reminds us, he does not expressly mention, yet the Argive Heræum was full of idols going back to the Mycenæan period and centuries earlier. This only illustrates the difficulty of attaining any precision in summarizing Mr. Rouse's subject. The Greeks had priests, but no dogma, practically, and no official theology. In the matter of votive offerings, "any one might offer anything under the sun," and to any deity; the golden tithe of Crœsus, the peasant's handful of corn, the fisherman's net, the schoolmaster's taws, and, we regret to say, the mirror of Lais, were equally acceptable. The taws may be an inventive fancy of the witty epigrammatist: the mirror was doubtless an offence in the eyes of many respectable Greeks, as it is in ours; with us, too, ill-gotten gains creep into the service of the sanctuary. But an examination of the immense range of heterogeneous offerings, with their inscriptions and dedications, will reveal in the earlier period genuine piety and thankfulness, a sweet and charming naïveté, not unmingled with a canny spirit which expects a good bargain and a fair exchange from the deity addressed. That, indeed, shows itself unreservedly in the prayers of the Homeric heroes.

An ugly side of the votive offering was the practice of cursing or anathematizing one's enemy in formulas as "detailed and elaborate as that of the jackdaw of Rheims." and that, too, in cold blood, without the excuse of passion, or enmity, or revenge. The boxer prays that his rival may lose his strength; the litigant, that his adversary's tongue may be as cold as the lead he writes on. These are generally engraved on lead-en sheets and buried in the earth, and are sometimes combined with a relief. The practice and the formulæ persisted in the island of Calymnus in 1798, and has probably not disappeared in the present day. "Binding Spells" are still the terror of the Greek bridegroom. A much pleasanter application of the same logic was the custom of manumitting a slave by the fiction of dedicating him to a divinity. A large number of inscriptions recording this act were disinterred in the recent excavations at Delphi.

It is easy to judge how valuable for the purpose of the specialist and of the student of life and manners is the body of Mr. Rouse's collections. To this rich storehouse, with its labyrinthine windings, it can hardly be said that the author has provided the key and the clue. But the final chapter which summarizes his research is highly interesting, and presents some useful conclusions. Symbolism in dedication he denies almost *in toto*. The owl of Athens had much the same significance as the Russian bear in a cartoon of *Punch*. The tripod, the lyre, the thyrsus, the trident, the cuckoo, the snake, the dove, were never worshipped as standing for Apollo, Dionysus, Poseidon, and the rest. Fetishism, of course, he admits; but the objects and animals just mentioned, he maintains, are associated with particular deities as "part of their character costume." As *offerings*, on the other hand, they are not confined to special deities; they are given on their merits for the same reasons as offerings in general. A lyre is found dedicated to Athene, but none to Apollo. An inspection of the exhaustive lists of articles dedicated to the various divinities will show that they are all equally miscellaneous and equally destitute of special significance. Mr. Rouse does not concede the symbolic, or hieratic, meaning which Mr. Evans assumes for the double-axe found in such hosts in the Cretan excavations. There is nothing holy about this kind of axe (or about the tripod). If Zeus of Labranda carries one, it is a weapon, and in his capacity of protector of the city. Axes, tripods, bars of iron, shields, and other objects had anciently a fixed value, and passed current like coins; they were used as prizes in the Iliad and Odyssey. The vast number of miniature axes found in the Dictæan Cave he regards either as coins, meant to be strung like Chinese *cash*, or as tokens, halfway between the implement and the coin; the same explanation would apply to the minute kettles and tripods of Olympia, and to multitudes of miniature rings, lances, shields, and chariot-wheels discovered in the most diverse shrines. They were tokens used in exchange, and paralleled by the ancient coinage of China.

This work is provided with elaborate indexes, and with lists of a dozen temple treasures derived from the inscriptions. If the reader misses anything, it is, as we have said, some illuminating principles and generalizations. But Mr. Rouse has cleared the way, he has amassed the facts with praiseworthy industry, and has provided for others the means to classify and theorize and introduce luminous order, if possible, into a labyrinthine subject. Mr. Rouse spells his preterites *markt, lookt, worshipt*, etc. But this whimsy will do no harm, for few are likely to imitate him, and a hard-worked scholar has the right to cut a few capers by way of diversion.

Rossetti. By Arthur C. Benson. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1904.

This is by far the most intelligible biography of that interesting personality we have yet had. In compiling it Mr. Benson had quite an extraordinary amount of documents to deal with, what with the industrious zeal of W. M. Rossetti in publishing family letters and diaries, as well as his Life of his brother in two volumes, which left the reader with a very disagreeable impression of D. G. Rossetti's personality; the innumerable magazine articles written by various people who had known the artist and some by those who had not, and the frequent mention of him in memoirs and autobiographies of his contemporaries. From all these various sources, both friendly and inimical, Mr. Benson has put together all that is characteristic; and although the narrative of that singularly tragic career is contained in seventy pages, it gives all that is of any importance, and describes the poet-painter as he seemed to those who knew him well. Mr. Benson had the advantage also of the help and criticism of Rossetti's friends, Fairfax Murray, Watts-Dunton, Hall Caine, and others, as well as of Mr. W. M. Rossetti; to these he acknowledges his indebtedness in the preface. It is evident that no pains were spared to arrive at a just and truthful estimate of Rossetti's character and life, his aims in painting and poetry, his views on literature, and his general attitude of mind—no easy task with so much conflicting evidence; but our author has succeeded in producing a very vivid image, which makes the influence of this great artist over his contemporaries better understood than is possible from other books about him. Innumerable fantastic legends have been circulated about Rossetti which had their origin in the peculiar circumstances of his life and his aversion to publicity, in refusing either to exhibit his pictures or to admit outsiders to see them. The greater number of those who were so privileged fell under the spell of the artist himself and of his work, and their report excited public curiosity to a very high pitch and gave rise to exaggerated stories, which continued to increase as years went on and the seclusion of Rossetti's declining years became more complete, while he fell a prey to insomnia and its consequences.

Rossetti's extraordinary influence over all who approached him was of an almost unparalleled order. His natural imperiousness was that of one used to command, and few felt inclined to dispute his authority. When one considers the men over whom he exercised for a time this personal magnetism—men of such marked individuality as Madox Brown, William Morris, Ruskin, Burne-Jones, Swinburne, George Meredith—the point is still more striking. His connection with Holman Hunt and Millais in forming the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood was of short duration, and his relations with them were not of such reciprocal friendliness as with his later friends. The trait in his character which must have appealed to all artists was his extreme appreciation of the work of others when it had any of the qualities he prized in art, his readiness to give counsel and direction, and his generous manner of according encouragement

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and advice when it was sought for. Up to the very last he had enthusiastic devotees, who considered it a privilege to share his solitude and minister to his wants. It seems all the more tragic that a man so nobly gifted with so much power in expressing his individuality, in the arts both of painting and of poetry, should, through want of self-restraint, have been unable to face the exigencies of life more successfully.

Mr. Benson's appreciation of Rossetti is chiefly as a poet; throughout the volume he treats at length of the verse, although he tells also of the pictures and their subjects, in due order. He asserts that Rossetti had no affinity for either of the two strains which have chiefly predominated in England in the nineteenth century, "the impulse to annex philosophical speculation to poetry to find a poetical solution for the problem lying behind nature and life, or to turn to account emotions of a philosophic kind. The other notable element has been the poetry of passion, of human relations and affections in their most direct forms." While Rossetti belonged to the mediæval school of Italian poetry, and cared as little for national problems as for abstract thought, to quote our author—

"To him the emotions and the experience of life lay entirely in the intricate and complex development of human passion, the mysterious relations of human spirits; but even here he did not approach the thought from the abstract side. For him human passion was inextricably connected with its outward manifestations, in the emotions stirred by the apprehension of beauty alike definite and indefinite, the gracious mysteries of which human form and features, gesture, movement, and glance, seem a sacramental expression. This was not in Rossetti's case a purely material sentiment; all these lovelinesses seemed to him to hide a secret, to be the very voice of some remote spirit speaking instantly to the soul."

He had set before himself as the task of his life, *the embodiment of mystical passion.* It was in this limitation and his sense of the dramatic moment that his especial power consisted, and, according to our author, Rossetti's position with regard to the literature of the century is lonely and esoteric, his influence in poetry extending only to poets of a secondary order who care for form rather than matter. Benson, however, attributes to D. G. Rossetti, Christina Rossetti, and Swinburne a reformation in the language in the use of simple and direct words. Tennyson had, in the "Idylls of the King" and later work, fallen from the freshness and charm of the language of his earlier work into conventional expression, and to Rossetti is due the new impulse towards simplicity of expression in English poetry. Mr. Benson considers that to Rossetti's Italian temperament is traceable the want of observance of accepted conventionalities in treating of love in his "House of Life." It is rather surprising that at this moment any critic having any pretensions to width of outlook should find any fault as to want of reticence in these sonnets, since the most popular novels of the day contain passages on sexual relations, crudely expressed, which do not in any way deter "the young person" from reading them. The world has made some progress in disregarding many old established prejudices, and the artistic temperament is not the sealed book it used to be.

Notwithstanding occasional lapses into fine writing and a superfluity of analysis, those who wish to know more about Rossetti, his life and ways, will do well to read this volume.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ashmore, Otis. A Manual of Pronunciation. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Barnes, James. The Son of Light Horse Harry. (Fiction.) Harper & Brothers. $1.25.
Cleaves, Charles Poole. A Case of Sardines. (Fiction.) Boston: The Pilgrim Press. $1.25.
Davitt, Michael. The Fall of Feudalism in Ireland. Harper & Brothers. $2.50 net.
Elizabethan Critical Essays. Edited by G. Gregory Smith. 2 vols. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 12s. net.
F., G. J. "Even Thine Altars"; or, Prayer and Bible Prayers. Philadelphia and London: Nunc Licet Press.
Gaze, Harry. How to Live Forever. Chicago: Stockham Pub. Co.
Hewlett, Maurice. The Queen's Quair. The Macmillan Co.
Hornaday, William T. The American Natural History. Charles Scribner's Sons.
Ingall, Godefroi D., and Withers, George. The Stock Exchange. London: Edward Arnold; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.60 net; postage, 10 cents.
Japan, as Seen and Described by Famous Writers. Edited and Translated by Esther Singleton. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.60 net.
Le Forestier, François. Autobiography and Voyages. Edited by Hasket Derby. The Boston Athenæum. $1.25.
Mallock, William Hurrell. The Veil of the Temple. (Fiction.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.20 net.
Mighels, Philip Verrill. Bruvver Jim's Baby. (Fiction.) Harper & Brothers. $1.50.
Pauli, Gustav. Venice. Translated by P. G. Konody. (Famous Art Cities; No. 11.) Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50 net.
Rabagliati, A. Air, Food and Exercises. Third edition, enlarged and rewritten. William Wood & Co.
Sage, M. Mrs. Piper and the Society for Psychical Research. Translated from the French and slightly abridged by Noralie Robertson, with preface by Sir Oliver Lodge. Scott-Thaw Co. $1 net.
Sanborn, Frank B. New Hampshire. (American Commonwealths.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10 net.
Stephens, W. P. American Yachting. (The American Sportsman's Library.) The Macmillan Co. $2 net
Stubbs, William. Lectures on European History. Edited by Arthur Hassall. Longmans, Green & Co. $4 net; postage, 22 cents.
The Philippine Islands, 1493-1898. Vol. XIII., 1604-1605. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Co.
The Squyr of Lowe Degre. Edited by William Edward Mead. (The Albion Series of Anglo-Saxon and Middle English Poetry.) Ginn & Co. $1.25; postage 10 cents.
Von Schierbrand, Wolf. Russia: Her Strength and her Weakness. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.60 net.
Waddington, Richard. La Guerre de Sept Ans. Vols II. et III. Paris: Firmin-Didot et Cie.
Washington, Booker T. Working with the Hands. Doubleday, Page & Co.

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